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VOL. LVI—NO. 1454.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 11, 1893.

## The Week.

NOT the least remarkable fact, in last week's mass of rumors, apprehensions, and disquieting theories on the financial outlook, was the entire absence of the tariff-revision question as an element of uneasiness. In their effort to intensify the panic, professional "bears" on Wall Street went through the nation's monetary perils with a drag-net. The state of the Treasury, the Australian bank failures, the drain of gold to Europe, the Western anti-railroad legislation, the tightness of the money market—each of these, in turn, was spread before a distracted public. Yet of impending tariff changes, as a factor of distress, not a whisper crossed the Stock Exchange. In the *Tribune* office, it is true, a vigorous bear movement was in progress, based solely upon the future of the tariff, and values tumbled, on the editorial page, in a way to put "industrial collapses" utterly to shame. But this was what the weather experts call a highly localized disturbance. It stopped in Printing-house Square. The grimmest bear leader of the street sniffed scornfully at it, and went his way. The reason is not hard to understand. Last year's series of object-lessons in Government finance has not stopped with currency entanglements. The spectacle of a deranged international trade and a depleted Federal Treasury has prompted some searching questions, and they have not been asked for nothing. The campaign of education did not end on November 8. The dullest watcher of the commercial situation, in or out of Wall Street, has learned in most emphatic style that nineteenth-century finance cannot be carried on through fifteenth-century trade statutes; that Governments may bind and meddle with commerce through a course of years, but that commerce sooner or later brings its own retribution.

It was noticeable that in the late Wall Street cyclone the storm centre was the group of industrial stocks. For this there were many reasons, but the overshadowing cause was the reckless speculation indulged in by the manipulators of these securities on the market for nearly two years past. These stocks, it will be remembered, were first offered for open "trading" in the Stock Exchange at a time when the cry for "new securities" was loudest. Business in railway shares, depressed by the losses following the enactment of the Inter-State Commerce Law, no longer afforded that "activity" which speculators love. There was a demand for stocks outside the well-known railway

list, and the theory gained sway that the Stock Exchange's obvious duty was to subject to the machinery of market speculation everything that could possibly be traded in. In the height of this new movement, petroleum and silver, in both of which trading has since then virtually expired, were placed on the official list. To the demand for the "industrials," the Stock Exchange committees promptly yielded. They learned no lesson from the experience of London, where shares of breweries, shops, and various promoting companies, listed in Capel Court, went down in 1890 in an overwhelming crash. Our speculators quickly seized their opportunity. Some of the newly listed stocks represented soundly organized corporations. Many, on the contrary, were "watered" in such degree that the common shares confessedly represented nothing. All were enveloped in the mystery which to the average outsider surrounds the operations of an unfamiliar business. The statements, submitted only once a year, were always perplexing and often misleading.

The result only repeated the familiar symptoms of speculative gambling. The speculator and investor, knowing little or nothing of the facts, lent ready ear to stories of enormous business earnings. An organized band of professional speculators bid up the prices to extravagant figures, and the higher the quotations went, all the more eager was the deluded outsider to buy. The height of the advance was reached at the close of 1892; following this came declarations of astonishing dividends, on the news of which experienced investors sold and the inexperienced bought. The silver scare came, and on this weak spot of the market fell the utmost violence of the collapse. That the banks have long shaken their heads over industrial shares as collateral in loans, and that prudent brokers have refrained from dangerous ventures elsewhere on the market, is Wall Street's safeguard to day. Had the financial community as a whole followed the example of the reckless gamblers who forced up Sugar, Cordage, Lead, Whiskey, and Rubber certificates only seven months ago, the incidents of May 3 could hardly have stopped short of a general panic.

The announcement that President Cleveland has requested Mr. Roosevelt to retain his place as Civil-Service Commissioner, and that he has consented to do so, will be received with joy by all reformers, and with equal dismay by spoilsmen throughout the country. Mr. Roosevelt has been the moving spirit of the Commission ever since he entered it. He believes not only in the theory of civil-ser-

vice reform, but also in putting it into practice. Throughout the Harrison Administration he pursued the spoilsmen "with a sharp stick," although they belonged to his own party, and he will not be any easier with them now that he will have to deal with Democrats. Mr. Cleveland would not ask such a Republican to continue on the Commission unless he himself "meant business" in the matter of civil service reform, as Mr. Roosevelt would not remain unless he had entire confidence in the President's sincerity.

The calmness with which the country has received the practical suspension of the Geary Law, pending the decision of the Supreme Court as to its constitutionality, is a gratifying evidence of the subsidence of the anti-Chinese mania. Secretary Carlisle's circular is ingeniously worded, and does undoubtedly show how difficult it would be to execute the law as it stands; yet it is clear that if either party saw as much political capital in Chinese-baiting as both parties thought they saw a few years ago, neither difficulty in interpreting or enforcing the law, nor doubts of its constitutionality, would have prevented a great display of vigor. The whole barbarous business was a vote getting one from the start, and is one of the glorious legacies which Mr. Blaine left his countrymen. Senator Frye gravely informed his Boston hearers the other night that Mr. Blaine's hatred of the Chinese grew out of his intense devotion to "the American home." He would not have Americans of this generation marry their daughters to "almond eyed lepers," any more than those other worshippers of the American home, forty years before, could bear to think of freeing the slaves and marrying their daughters to "niggers." These domestic emotions deceive nobody. It was "the anti-Chinese vote" that the patriots were after, and as that has come to have only a dubious value, their anti-Chinese fury has abated. It may now be hoped that the Supreme Court will come to the rescue and enable the country to retreat gracefully from a position worthy only of barbarians.

The postponement of the Brussels Conference must be a great relief to the members, especially to our members. The reasons advanced for postponing it are as good as those advanced for postponing the Conference of 1881. In fact, they are the same as those, viz., the need of education, and the obvious advantage to the cause of bimetallicism of allowing time for the commercial classes to study the question. Decided progress in this particular is discerned now, as it was in 1881. "Let it simmer." There is no need of fixing any time for the next meet-

ing of the Conference—any more than there was then. But if a time should be fixed, the meeting can be postponed again as easily as now. The whole thing has the air of *opéra bouffe* rather more than the old Conference had, because the chief end and aim of this one was political rather than economical—namely, to keep the mining States in the Republican party.

The propriety of ex Secretary Tracy's urging the Bering Sea question in the *North American Review* while the case, submitted by a Cabinet of which he was a member, is before a tribunal for adjudication, is questioned by many people. Although no longer in office, he is, in the eye of the world, one of the parties to the litigation. In fact, it is for that reason, doubtless, he was asked to write the article. Had he never been Secretary of the Navy, he never would have tempted the editor as a writer on international law. Moreover, one of the inconveniences of this whole Bering Sea controversy is that it was set on foot in its present shape by a man who was neither a lawyer nor a diplomatist, and who, therefore, imposed on the counsel the necessity of maintaining some doctrines which run counter to the policy pursued in our foreign relations from the foundation of the Government. What counsel say, however, in argument is not likely to prove as inconvenient as what an ex-member of the Cabinet contributes to a periodical. It would have been better far to let the lawyers fight the matter out, and the tribunal pass on it without interference from the bystanders. A subject that Mr. Tracy could well and profitably have treated in the *Review* is the *Barandia* case, which is not *sub judice*. He was himself an actor in that, and produced for the condemnation of Capt. Reiter doctrines which, as we showed at the time, were quite novel and apparently very dangerous. He never, however, took the trouble to explain or defend them, although they were full of confusion for the public, for our diplomatic service, and for the navy.

Mr. Tracy's notion that there exists a "law of nature" which does not need the sanction of general recognition by mankind as binding on the human conscience, and to which anybody who pleases can appeal and interpret it on his own behalf, is probably as fantastic a conception as ever arose in a legal bosom. How do we get at "the law of nature"? Who "pronounces" its "condemnations"? Its judgments do not reach us in the evening breeze, or in the thunder—do they? The only "law of nature" of which either jurists or moral philosophers have ever taken notice until now, is a law which the human race or the civilized part of it has acknowledged to be a law or custom. "Nature" here means "human nature," and human nature pronounces its moral

judgments and lays down its rules through civilized man. We should like to hear from Mr. Tracy of some of the "acts which are immoral independently of any prohibition"—that is, to which the human conscience has nothing to say and has said nothing. He might as well tell us of things highly colored without light. Nothing can be, or ever has been, "prohibited" for man which man has not by some mode of expression placed within the jurisdiction of some generally acknowledged authority.

There are many indications that the Republican press is becoming uneasy over the Hawaiian situation, in view of possible revelations which Mr. Blount may make in regard to the doings of Minister Stevens. The *Tribune* remarked on Monday:

"It is time for Mr. Blount to come home. There is a widespread feeling in this country that whether or not Minister Stevens went too far in the protection of the Provisional Government and the cause it sought to serve, about the worst use to which the American flag can be put is to haul it down."

There is also a "widespread feeling" that raising the American flag as if it were a piratical ensign is not an act of pure patriotism, and that the best thing to do with the flag when it has been raised in that way is to haul it down. There is evidence that Minister Stevens began as early as November, 1889, to get ready to haul up the flag and to force annexation; and his despatches to Mr. Blaine, published by the Government, show that in February and March of 1892 he was working away at the manufacture of "annexation sentiment," and was asking for instructions as to how far he could go in using the United States naval forces at Honolulu to aid in sustaining a revolution. Thus, on March 8, 1892, he wrote: "I desire to know how far the present Minister and naval commander may deviate from established international rules and precedents in the contingencies indicated," etc. His despatches, from his earliest arrival on the islands, show that he was true to the Blaine tradition of diplomacy, for he set to work at once interesting himself in the material resources and possibilities of the country, looking for chances to "get in on the ground floor," for "channels of usefulness," and for "good things" generally.

The *Tribune's* despatches from Hawaii admit that "the Provisional army" is made up of "adventurers who would sell out to the Royalists unless well paid," and that "the Queen will be back on her throne six hours after Mr. Blount sails away" unless American troops are used to keep the natives from having the kind of government they want. Mr. Nordhoff, in the *Herald*, lets off another broadside of facts which leaves Minister Stevens and several members of the Provisional Government in sorry plight. The former he

shows to have been a very cheap and vulgar intriguer, and charges him with sending "false and misleading reports" to President Harrison. He also shows that eleven members of the Provisional Government and of the Committee of Safety were themselves signers of a petition for that lottery bill which they afterwards virtuously denounced, and deposed the wicked Queen for advocating. On top of all this comes an interview with ex-Senator Edmunds in San Francisco, in which he opposes annexation as infallibly leading to stupendous political jobbery.

Every day's delay of Hawaiian annexation shows more clearly how fatally the annexationists gore themselves on either horn they choose of the dilemma that confronts them. If the Hawaiians are fitted to become American citizens, why are they not fitted to enjoy the rights and privileges of American citizens? The natives are asking this question with troublesome reiteration, and Commissioner Thurston has been driven to write a letter to them explaining why no provisions were put in the treaty to prevent carpet-bag government and to secure the franchise to the Hawaiians. All he could say was that there is an unwritten law in the United States against carpet-baggers, and that in this, as in all other matters affecting their interests, the natives could safely trust to the magnanimity and enlightenment of Congress. They could be sure that no discrimination would ever be made against any class of the noble Hawaiians, who, he knew, would make ideal American citizens. This is all for home consumption. When it comes to talking for the audience in the United States, we hear nothing but assertions, as in the *Hawaiian Gazette* of April 25, of "the incapacity of the Hawaiians for self-government," and the moral duty of the United States to take them in hand and set up a strong government which it will be "beyond their power to threaten or destroy."

The Hon. William McKinley, jr., was again nominated for the Presidency at a banquet of the Boston Home-Market Club on Wednesday week. His name was proposed for this office by the Hon'ble Elijah Morse, the greatest authority on Rising Sun Stove Polish in the known world. Gov. McKinley, as it happened, was himself present and made a speech, in which he said that the Republican party was always successful except when some great public measure, which it had passed for the benefit of all the people, had not had time to vindicate its good qualities, but where the widest range had been given to the demagogue to traduce its merits and create prejudice against it. Senator Hoar made a speech also. He said that the Republican party took its name from the great principle that American labor is entitled



to the American market. To maintain this principle, he declared (or rather he said that Daniel Webster had declared) that the American Revolution was fought and the Constitution adopted. This principle, he admitted, had had its ups and downs. He was aware that it had been voted down more than once, but, strangely enough, he forgot to say that it was once voted down by Massachusetts herself, namely, in 1857, when her Congressmen supported a lower tariff than the "free-trade tariff" of 1846; but Mr. Hoar had perhaps forgotten that little matter. Even more surprising is it that he should find any economical question of more importance than the Force Bill as a political issue. Ex-Senator Dawes followed, but he said nothing of importance. The Hon'ble Elijah Morse, after nominating McKinley, took President Cleveland to task for hauling down the flag on the Sandwich Islands. He made an original quotation from Gen. Dix about shooting on the spot anybody who should be guilty of such hauling, and said that while that punishment might be considered too severe in the present instance, yet the act "deserved the displeasure of all right minded and patriotic citizens who love their country and desire its glory, honor, extension, and prosperity"—and all the other commonplaces in the dictionary. Nevertheless, this banquet of the Home-Market Club did not seem to be a very hearty one.

Gov. Flower has again given the public a surprise by his decision in the Carlyle W. Harris case, as he did last September in the Fire Island matter, appearing now once more as a man of backbone after a long period of subserviency and truckling to the Democratic bosses. His decision not to interfere with the execution of the law will be commended by all candid people who have studied the case, and his statement of the reasons for his conclusion is very well expressed. There has never been a case of the sort where the guilt of the accused was more clearly shown, or more emphatically declared by the judicial tribunals appointed to determine such questions. The attempt to save this justly convicted murderer by inducing men and women all over the country who knew nothing about the case to sign petitions asking for a commutation—to the number, as claimed by Harris's counsel, of "160,000 names"—and by persuading influential people like Evangelist Moody to write letters in his behalf to the Governor, was so absurd and outrageous that its success would have turned our administration of justice into a farce. Yet so weak and flabby has Gov. Flower shown himself the last few months that probably nine persons out of every ten expected he would save Harris from the just penalty of an atrocious crime.

We hope it is true, as reported, that it is the intention of Mr. Croker to start a

daily Tammany organ with Mr. Bourke Cockran as editor-in-chief. Such an organ would be of great public service, whatever its usefulness to Tammany Hall might prove to be. We need some authoritative voice to expound to us the theories of Tammany government as carried out by Mayor Gilroy, and some champion, as fearless as the Mayor himself, to defend by authority Tammany's most noteworthy acts. The illuminating possibilities of such organship are very great. We caught a glimpse of what they would be in the single authorized deliverance which Mr. Croker made a day or two before Mayor Gilroy announced his first appointments, in which he said that he preferred professional politicians to business men for public office, because the former could give all their time to their public duties. We should not have been able to account fully for the Mayor's appointments if the Boss had not thus explained them in advance. If now, when a murderer, or an associate of gamblers, or an ex dive-keeper, or a horse-thief, or a liquor-dealer, or some other unusual variety of candidate is given an important public office, we could have direct from Mr. Croker through Mr. Cockran an inspired and authoritative defence of the act, it would be a very instructive bit of public information. For the first time in the history of the city the criminal classes are being drawn upon quite regularly to furnish us with public officials; and a departure so radical as this from the customs of the civilized world for many centuries ought to be expounded by the voice of authority. It is true that the *Sun* is a devoted organ, but it avoids detail too much to be really useful. It pronounces the Mayor's appointments good as a whole, and says we ought all to be proud of them; but this is too general. Something more specific and individual is needed, and a personal organ would supply it.

Although there has been no fighting of importance in Dahomey for some months, we may say that the surrender of Behanzin has only now brought the war there to a close. The kingdom of Dahomey has ceased to exist. In its place we find a French colony on the coast, and two or three small protected States further inland. It now remains to be seen what her new possessions will be worth to France. Even if they are not likely in any near future to repay a quarter of what it has cost to acquire them, they are not without value. The climate is fearful, perhaps even worse than the very bad average of the coasts of tropical Africa: there is nothing resembling a natural harbor; the population is not dense, and the products of the country are those of a great part of the continent. On the other hand, trade, which, under the most unfavorable circumstances, has always been active here, ought now to increase greatly; all the more so as the French have built a

wharf at Kotonu, so that it is no longer necessary to cross in small boats the most dangerous surf in the world, which besides swarms with sharks. The highlands of the interior are comparatively healthy. The Dahomans, though fierce and cruel, as is shown by their human sacrifices, are brave, loyal to their leaders, and distinctly more intelligent (like their brothers the Ashantees) than the races that surround them. As the new French territory is bounded on the east by the British colony of Lagos, and on the west by the German one of Togo, it can be extended only towards the north, where it is the dream of enthusiasts in France to unite it some day with a future great colonial empire of the Western Sudan. It seems improbable that the hope will be realized, for the Germans are said to have already cut off half this *Hinterland*, and English maps claim the whole, in order to connect their possessions of the Gold Coast and of the Niger.

A comparison of the Dahomey war with the English Ashantee war suggests certain reflections. The general conditions of the two campaigns were similar, the enemy to be conquered was about the same, and both expeditions were carefully planned as well as skilfully led. Yet the French, with a shorter distance to go, had a much harder task to perform, suffered much more severely, and for a time were much less sure of success. The reason is simple enough. The negro has learned to appreciate firearms—not old Moorish flint-locks, but modern army rifles, of which there are plenty to be had cheap, thanks to the periodical changes of armament in civilized countries. It is getting to be as false to imagine the natives of a great part of Africa with spears and shields as it is to suppose that the North American Indians still rely on bows and arrows. Lord Wolseley could no longer tell his soldiers, as he did, that each of them was a match for twenty Ashantees. The black man has made progress in the art of killing. To be sure, the European Powers at the Brussels Anti-Slavery Conference bound themselves to put a stop to this, but business is business: liquor and guns are the two things the negro wants, and the enterprising trader can usually dodge the colonial officials, even where they do not wink at his acts out of jealousy of foreigners. Everywhere where there is fighting—Dahomey, the Sudan, the Congo Free State—we hear the same complaints about neutrals. King Behanzin not only had, besides a few good cannon, a plentiful supply of Mauser, Gras, and other rifles with ammunition, but also Germans, Englishmen, and Portuguese half-castes, to train and command his faithful subjects. Of course the French were better armed than the English of twenty years ago, but this superiority was far from counterbalancing the difference in the weapons of their enemies.

## AN EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.

MR. CLEVELAND has issued the following notice, which we think may be considered the most important step yet taken in the deliverance of the public service of the United States from the spoilsmen—because it promises at no distant date the full recognition of the merit system in all grades of the public service:

"EXECUTIVE MANSION, May 8, 1893.

"It has become apparent, after two months' experience, that the rules heretofore promulgated regulating interviews with the President have wholly failed in the operation. The time which, under those rules, was set apart for the reception of Senators and Representatives, has been almost entirely spent in listening to applications for office, which have been bewildering in volume, perplexing and exhausting in their iteration, and impossible of remembrance.

"A due regard for public duty, which must be neglected if present conditions continue, and an observance of the limitations placed upon human endurance, oblige me to decline, from and after this date, all personal interviews with those seeking appointments to office, except as I, on my own motion, may especially invite them. The same considerations make it impossible for me to receive those who merely desire to pay their respects, except on the days and during the hours especially designated for that purpose.

"I earnestly request Senators and Representatives to aid me in securing for them uninterrupted interviews by declining to introduce their constituents and friends when visiting the Executive Mansion during the hours designated for their reception. Applicants for office will only prejudice their prospects by repeated importunity and by remaining at Washington to await results."

No abuse of the spoils system has been so flagrant and mischievous as that which has compelled the members of the incoming Administration to devote the first two or three months to listening to the applications of a swarm of shiftless, restless people for small places in the public service. No phenomenon of our politics has been for half a century so amazing, both to foreign observers and to the business men of our own country, as the absorption of the great officers of the Government, at the most perplexing period of their official lives, in the distribution of offices, not vacant, among persons of whom they know nothing, and who, in nine cases out of ten, were seeking them because of failure in all other walks of life. In truth, ever since Jackson's day, the spectacle witnessed in the White House and in the departments at Washington during the three months following a Presidential election has had the air of being contrived for the simple purpose of bringing ridicule on popular government. That it has not worked more mischief is to be explained, like the currency vagaries of Congress, by the abounding material prosperity of the country and the exhaustless energy of the people.

But of course, as the population has increased and the work of government has grown heavier, this spectacle has grown more and more preposterous. The monstrosity of it has been brought home to people very forcibly by picturing it as occurring under other great Powers. Why should the American President figure in a rôle which would excite the laughter and astonishment of the civilized world if

it were assigned to Gladstone or Bismarck or Carnot? But what has finally reduced it to absurdity is, undoubtedly, the gravity of the business which confronted Mr. Cleveland and his Cabinet when they came into office. Since Lincoln, no President has had to face such responsibilities as were created for Mr. Cleveland by his victory on the tariff and the silver question. The successful treatment of either one of them in his place is an enterprise from which the ablest man who has ever filled it, or will ever fill it, might well shrink. What, then, was the amazement of the country, trembling as it was on the verge of a great financial crisis, and looking for a revolution in its system of taxation, to find the days and nights of the chief officers of the Government given up, week after week, to interviews with a parcel of Toms, Dicks, and Harrys, from all corners of the Union, to hear reasons why they would like small salaries in places for which they made no pretence of fitness.

Until now the whole blame for this state of things has been thrown on the office-seekers and their Congressional backers. The President and the Cabinet have from time to time issued plaintive wails, such as might have come from Laocöon in the mighty folds of the serpent. They represented themselves as the victims of a dreadful but overwhelming necessity, and we were told that there could be no deliverance for our Government until we succeeded in persuading the office-seeking crowd to keep away from Washington, which was about as hopeless a task as persuading a fifty-cent bumner to engage in market-gardening.

What was never explained to us was, why either the President or his Secretaries allowed promiscuous bands of outsiders to invade their offices in business hours and put a complete stop to the official business of the nation, for the transaction of which they were appointed and paid. The answer which was generally made—that "courtesy" required the President and the members of the Cabinet to see these invaders and listen to them—only made the mystery the greater, for no other business men in the world think that courtesy requires them to neglect their daily duties in order to see indiscriminate callers and listen to their stories about their private needs. A bank president, or the president of a trust or railroad company, when demands of this sort are made on him, makes very short work of them. So does every European statesman. Not one thinks of allowing crowds of bummers to take up his official time and force him to lay down the national business, and wear out his nerves, which he has sworn to devote to the public service, hearing them tell why they would like to be consuls in a mild climate, or keep lighthouses near home, or get post-offices away from the other fellows. We must all be profoundly thankful that Mr. Cleveland has at last taken the business view of the obligations of his great office, and is

going to close his doors when he has the affairs of the American people to attend to. No act of his administration will meet with heartier popular approval, for the popular disgust with the surrender of the public time to the office-seekers during the past two months has been very deep.

## THE TURNING-POINT OF THE PARIS ARBITRATION.

THE reports received by cable from Paris setting forth what took place on the last day of Mr. Carter's argument, need explanation. One report says:

"Then Mr. Carter proceeded to argue the necessity of regulations. Sir Charles Russell here arose and said that the Americans must argue the question of rights apart from that of regulations. A discussion followed between the bench and Mr. Phelps and Sir Charles Russell. President de Courcel said that the tribunal understood the matter as Sir Charles Russell did. Justice Harlan remarked that what the President meant was that counsel might do as they liked."

Another report says:

"Mr. Carter proceeded to argue on the subject of regulations, but was interrupted by Sir Charles Russell, of counsel for Great Britain, who said that Great Britain would not recede from the position that the question of rights should be argued apart from the question of regulations. Sir Charles stated, however, that he would not object to Mr. Carter presenting a statement of his views on the subject. An animated discussion followed, in which Baron de Courcel, President of the Tribunal, American Arbitrator Harlan, British Arbitrator Lord Hannen, Sir Charles Russell, and the Hon. E. J. Phelps took part. It was finally decided that the counsel for Great Britain should argue the question of rights and the question of regulations separately, but that the tribunal would not give separate decisions."

The Treaty of February 29, 1892, providing for the arbitration, declares in its opening article that its object is to decide three questions: The jurisdictional rights of the United States in Bering Sea, the preservation of the fur-seals in, or habitually resorting to, said sea, and the rights of citizens or subjects of either country to kill and take such seals. The first and third concern *rights*, but the second relates to what should be done to preserve the seals, apart from legal rights.

The sixth article of the treaty declares that to decide those three matters there shall be submitted to the arbitrators five "points," in order that their award shall embrace a "distinct decision upon each." The five are:

(1.) Exclusive jurisdiction in Bering Sea, and over seals therein, asserted and exercised by Russia up to the cession of Alaska.

(2.) Recognition and concession of those claims by England.

(3.) Did the Treaty of 1825 between England and Russia recognize Bering Sea as included in the Pacific Ocean, and what exclusive rights in Bering Sea did Russia exercise after 1825?

(4.) Did all Russia's jurisdictional and fishery rights in Bering Sea, east of treaty boundary in 1867, pass to the United States under that treaty?

(5.) Have the United States any and what right of property and protection in



the fur-seals frequenting the islands of the United States in Bering Sea when found outside the three-mile limit?

All those five points distinctly concern "rights." Then the seventh article stipulates that, if the United States have not exclusive rights in Bering Sea, and the consent of England is necessary to establish proper regulations to protect such seals, the arbitrators shall say what the regulations shall be, outside the jurisdictional limits of the respective Governments, and each of the two Governments shall co-operate in securing thereto the adhesion of other Powers.

By article 14 of the treaty, each party is to consider the "result of the proceedings of the tribunal" a full, perfect, and final settlement of all the questions referred to the arbitrators. Here can be seen the cause of divergent opinions in the trial going on at Paris. England, feeling strong on each of the five points, contends that the arbitrators cannot consider or even hear arguments on the international regulations until the arbitrators have adjudicated the five questions in the sixth article, upon the determination of which alone depends the power to enter on the subject of regulations. It should be further explained that, under article 8 of the treaty, either Government may ask the arbitrators to find how much it has been damaged by the conduct of the other in Bering Sea—as, for example, by our seizure of vessels or by Canadian pelagic sealing—which finding of damages will of course depend on preliminary and distinct finding of rights.

All the departments of our Government—executive, legislative, and judicial—seem to have asserted territorial jurisdiction over the eastern portion of Bering Sea. The President has proclaimed the jurisdiction, and vessels have been seized outside the three-mile limit and condemned by the courts; but yet, in the "case" presented at Paris by Mr. Foster as "agent," he does not rely entirely on jurisdiction, in the usual sense, over Bering Sea, but on *contra bonos mores*, which, he says, in the American "counter case," our Minister at London, Mr. Phelps, invented in 1888, and Secretary Blaine adopted in the view of the United States. Mr. Foster also affirms, in our "counter case," that Secretary Blaine, in his note of April 14, 1891, stood upon the contention that because the seals have been born on our islands, the United States have a "property interest" in each and all of them, wherever they may be, in any sea, and that the destruction of them by Canadians has been "inhuman."

England's "case" was, however, devoted almost exclusively to showing that the United States are not entitled to exercise territorial jurisdiction over Bering Sea. When the American agent and counsel had seen it, they set up in the American "counter case" a distinction between "general and exclusive jurisdiction" and "the right to protect" in all

Bering Sea "the seals from extermination." In our "counter case," our claim is limited to "the protection and preservation of the seal herd which has its home on the Pribyloff Islands." The contention therein is that the State Department, under Bayard, asked international co-operation only for such preserving purpose; that on January 22, 1890, Secretary Blaine proclaimed *contra bonos mores*, invented by Mr. Phelps in 1888, and only after England had refused assent to Blaine's application of that moral rule did Secretary Blaine resort to the contentions raised in the first four of the five treaty points.

The English in their printed "argument" call attention to such varying and shifting American contentions. They are thus characterized: The claims were at first asserted as descended from Russia. Those were soon abandoned for claims by the United States on their own right of dominion, which last were, at the outset, claims over Bering Sea as territorial waters, but subsequently were changed to jurisdiction on the high sea over fur-seals (and only them) as over a herd of cattle on the plains. It is true, nevertheless, that in our "case" the right of protection and property in the seals is put on (1) the principles of the common law, (2) the civil law, (3) the practice of nations, (4) natural history, and (5) finally, "the common interests of mankind." International law was not referred to. "To all this shadowy claim," says the printed British argument, "the Government of the Queen submit but one answer—The law." Herein is disclosed the fighting ground. Our lawyers go at once to a consideration of "regulations" on the *contra-bonos-mores* plea. The English lawyers refuse to be taken there till the "rights" of the two countries in Bering Sea have been decided. The English and Canadians say to the Americans in effect:

"So long as you claim to impose 'regulations' on pelagic sealing based on legal rights, we resist, but when you shall have abandoned all your pretensions of rights, and come down to the lower and more practical plane of common sense and common benefit to every country, to the pelagic sealer and the Pribyloff Islands sealer, then England and Canada will cordially co-operate in measures to be formulated by the tribunal to preserve the fur-seals in the sea and on all the islands."

#### "REASONABLE PUBLICITY."

OUR remarks the other day on "the itch for publicity," apropos of the late M. Taine's curious desire to keep his private affairs to himself, did not meet with the approval of *Harper's Weekly*. In its eyes it is "the itch for privacy" which is the unpardonable sin. "This is the age of publicity," it says, "and we have reason to rejoice at it"; adding that "the more a man can live openly, and, if he is a public man, the more frank and unreserved

he can make his relations with other people, the better it is for him." Giving the sum of the whole matter, the *Weekly* concludes: "What sunshine is to earth, a reasonable publicity is to society."

Now it would be easy to say a good deal about that adjective "reasonable," and pertinent to ask who is to decide what is "reasonable publicity"—the man who protests against having his personal or family concerns exploited, or the man who insists upon making traffic of them. But we pass that by in order to remind the *Weekly* that it is hopelessly confounding two distinct things—the wholesome publicity with which the modern world expects the public business to be conducted, and the advertising of private affairs, which is offensive when invited and desired by any man, and almost criminal when thrust upon him by those who make gain out of his torture. This confusion fairly glares from the *Weekly's* article. It quotes President Eliot for the prevention of "abuses and cruelties" by "the publicity of modern life," and only six lines later declares, "Newspapers every day meddle with matters that it is a needless cruelty to touch." So it seems there is a publicity of which the tender mercies are cruel. What President Eliot meant was the abolition of governmental secrecy, the doing away with star chamber courts and administration behind barred doors, arrest on *lettres de cachet*, and the rack and thumb-screw as instruments of cross-examination. To jump from this to the denial of all right to privacy is unwarranted. In fact, to make that jump is to land us in a worse condition than we were in before. Many a victim of "publicity" to-day would count it a blessed exchange if he could substitute the *peine forte et dure* of an irresponsible tyrant of the Middle Ages for the more exquisite tortures inflicted by an irresponsible press.

We think we can bring home to the *Weekly* its confusion of thought on this subject by a slight extension of one of its own arguments. "Old-time privacy," it says, "got a great blow when a Paris mob pulled down the Bastille." Excellent, but there is a great deal of new-time privacy remaining which could be dealt a powerful "blow" in a similar way. A mob of authors and contributors ransacking the Harper establishment in Franklin Square could deliver a scathing rebuke to "the itch for privacy." They could bring to light secrets of the book-trade, and uncover the relations of author and publisher, and unravel mysteries of royalties and copyright, in a way to put to lasting shame all those who love seclusion and reserve. And how much it would further the desire of the editors of the *Weekly* to "live openly" if they would only station a stenographer and a photographer behind the chair of each of their guests at their dinner parties, and give out a daily statement of their bank account and investments, and publish in advance the matrimonial intentions of all

their kith and kin—and, in fact, answer fully every question that the most breezy journalist of the day ever puts to them. If privacy as such is reprehensible, and if it is as good for the individual as for a government to be "frank and unreserved" in everything, this is what we come to logically.

It is possible that the *Weekly* may mean to limit the duty of publicity to distinguished men like Taine, who was so deficient in practising it. At any rate, it lays particular emphasis upon the obligation of such men to make a clean breast of it, saying: "Great achievement is a discouragement to struggling merit unless it is possible to trace the methods of it—the difficulties that effort overcame, the obstacles that patience surmounted, the disasters that courage survived." Now, in regard to this appeal in behalf of "struggling merit," the first question to ask is that put by Lowell in his lecture on Chapman: "Is it love of knowledge or of gossip that renders these private concerns so interesting to us, and makes us willing to intrude on the awful seclusion of the dead, or to flatten our noses against the windows of the living?" And the second question is, How much nearer do we get to the real secret and incommunicable gift of genius after all the babblers have had their say?

The great fallacy in this "encouragement-to-struggling-merit" argument lies in supposing that the fullest knowledge of a distinguished man's personal peculiarities or failings will enable us to understand, much less imitate, the qualities that made him distinguished. How far does it go towards letting us into the secret of Schiller's style to know that he used to compose with decaying apples in his desk? Would a whole barrel of rotten apples do any good to struggling merit of an order that could find any encouragement in such a fact? If we cannot profit by the product of genius without knowing all the inner methods of production, we are badly off, and had better never read Shakspeare, the known facts of whose life can be written on a single page. It is, in fact, precisely this disinclination to accept genius without gossip that has created the crazy Shakspeare-Bacon literature, apropos of the moving cause of which the late Prof. Ten Brink remarked: "We may never hope to lift the veil which covers the mystery of genius." Browning's answer to the request that he should "unlock his heart" is full of good sense, and we leave it for the *Weekly* to think over:

"Outside should suffice for evidence;  
And whoso desires to penetrate  
Deeper, must dive by the spirit-sense—  
No optics like yours, at any rate!"

#### MR. JAMES BRYCE AND HIS DUCHY.

MR. JAMES BRYCE, the author of 'The American Commonwealth,' and now a member of the Gladstone Cabinet, has had a "spat" with the Tories that strikingly illustrates the extreme bitterness which the home-rule question has infused in-

to political strife. Mr. Bryce is Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, a queer office which has come down from the Middle Ages, and which reminds the world that Lancashire was once a sort of little principality, which was absorbed into the kingdom without losing the whole of its administrative machinery. The Chancellor used, before 1870, to appoint the unpaid justices of the peace in Lancashire, whereas in other counties they are appointed on the recommendation of the Lord Lieutenant of the county, always a great land-holding peer. The appointing power is, as a rule, exercised by the Lord Lieutenant with care and judgment, especially as regards the character and social standing of the appointees. The unpaid magistrates, county and borough, in England will, in fact, compare favorably with any similar body in the world, if, indeed, there be any other body in the world which dispenses petty justice without pay. The use of the appointing power by the Chancellor in Lancashire was not, however, equally satisfactory, because he is an officer who goes out on a change of Ministry, and is therefore unlikely to possess the acquaintance with the people of the county necessary to prevent mistakes in manning the bench, and is sure to be more or less of a politician. Accordingly, in 1870, while Mr. Gladstone was in office, a memorandum was made transferring the appointment of magistrates in Lancashire, as elsewhere, to the Lord Lieutenant, then and now the Earl of Sefton, a Liberal peer of high character, who has exercised it until recently without complaint.

The trouble began when the Liberal party split on the home-rule question in 1886. A very large proportion of the Liberal magistrates then on the bench went over to the Liberal Unionists, so that the Gladstonians found themselves during the whole six years of the Salisbury Ministry represented on the magistracy by a beggarly minority, while the majority, composed of Tories and Liberal Unionists, were animated towards the whole Gladstonian party with a hostility almost unprecedented in British politics. As these magistrates have more or less jurisdiction over registration at elections, and over publicans' licenses and game laws and rights of way and other matters exciting a good deal of party feeling, the partisan complexion of the bench has for some time been a cause of bitter complaint among the Gladstonian voters, who number about half the constituency of the county. There were 522 opponents of the present Ministry, when it came into office, in the county magistracy, and only 142 supporters. In seven out of the thirty-two petty sessional divisions there was not a single Liberal magistrate.

Mr. Bryce was, when he came into office, called upon strenuously by the Lancashire Liberals to redress this grievance. He laid it before Lord Sefton, and

asked him to appoint thirty nine additional magistrates of the Gladstonian persuasion. Lord Sefton peremptorily refused. He was satisfied with the bench as it was, and would not even consider Mr. Bryce's list. Mr. Bryce then, after consultation with the rest of the Cabinet, revoked the order of 1870 and resumed the power of appointment, and appointed enough Liberals to redress the balance. In the boroughs he made the number of Liberals a little more than that of the Conservatives, but in the county the division has undergone little change. His action brought down on him, however, a savage attack from the Opposition in the House of Commons, in which he was accused of having borrowed the tactics of the spoilsmen from his friends the Americans, with much other abusive matter; but no argument was produced against him except that the Lancashire bench was very well as it was, and that Lord Sefton was a better man than Mr. Bryce. It should be added that Lord Herschell, the Lord Chancellor, has followed Mr. Bryce's example in other counties for similar reasons. The crusade against the Gladstonians has had so much social acrimony infused into it that partisan magistrates had become in many districts a serious inconvenience. Mr. Bryce defended himself in the debate with dignity and good temper, and carried the House on the division by a majority of 74 in a total of 446.

#### LUNAR CRATERS.

FOR a number of years there has been in astronomical literature a slender undercurrent of doubt as to the volcanic origin of the "craters" of the moon. In spite of their question-begging name, their analogy with terrestrial volcanoes is very incomplete. The varied features of the lunar surface, when examined by a telescope of moderate power, nowhere include conical mountains, with relatively small and shallow craters at their summits. True, there are many broad and deep craters within low enclosing wall-rings, and they have been compared to those special and somewhat exceptional terrestrial volcanic forms to which the name "caldera" is coming to be applied. Terrestrial calderas are well shown in the great marginal rings of lost volcanic cones in Italy and in various other volcanic districts. They are commonly explained as resulting from the destruction of former cones by violent explosive action, and it has therefore come to be the fashion to explain lunar craters in the same way, thus placing them in a class somewhat apart from ordinary volcanoes, which are formed on the earth by eruptions of less explosive activity. Now we know nothing of the composition of the moon's rocks; we know very little of their structure. We have not the least direct proof that the rims of the broad craters consist of materials unlike those of the surrounding surface, and therefore presumably brought up from beneath the surface. On the earth it is evidence of this kind, as well as that furnished by direct observation of eruptions, that establishes the volcanic origin of extinct volcanoes; but we have no knowledge of actual eruptions on the moon. It is a remotely past



and entirely hypothetical activity to which the lunar craters are referred.

An address recently delivered by Mr. G. K. Gilbert, as retiring President of the Philosophical Society of Washington, takes up the study of the moon's face, and carries a new non-volcanic theory of the origin of its craters to a most novel and interesting conclusion. His theory is in brief as follows: There was once a ring around the earth, like that which now surrounds Saturn. The ring long ago became segregated into many subordinate bodies, as Saturn's rings may be expected to become at some future time. The greatest of these separate segregations, or "moonlets," gradually acquired the lesser ones, and thus all the matter formerly stretched around us in a ring is now concentrated in a single satellite. The earlier stages of this aggregation presumably went on slowly, accompanied by relatively sluggish collisions because the masses then concerned were comparatively small and their differential velocities were moderate; hence no great amount of heat was then evolved, and the growing moon remained relatively cold. But as the mass increased, later collisions became more violent, and at last attained such energy as to cause the fusion of the colliding moonlets as well as of a part of the moon at the place of impact; and these later collisions produced "craters."

An apparent objection to this theory is found in the nearly circular form of the craters; for, at first thought, collisions would be expected to take place generally in a very oblique direction, and such impacts should produce elliptical craters. It is to the consideration of this objection that Mr. Gilbert addresses himself; and, aided by Mr. R. M. Woodward, a mathematical fellow-member of the Society, he makes a very good case indeed—a case good enough to believe, if we can only persuade ourselves that the moon has not had any volcanic activity of an explosive kind, and that the earth once had a Saturnian ring.

It is first shown that if the crater-making impacts were received from meteors of cosmic origin, coming from all directions, there would have been so many oblique strokes that the nearly circular form of the ring mountains could not be thus explained. It is next shown that if the impacts were from small moonlets, moving around the earth in the plane of the moon's orbit, but independent of the moon's attraction, vertical impacts would be more frequent than any others; yet oblique impacts would be still more frequent than the form of the craters indicates. It is finally shown that if account be taken of lunar attraction, by which the path of the moonlets would be modified when in the neighborhood of the moon, then vertical impacts would be greatly increased in frequency, and the prevalence of nearly circular craters might be accounted for. In this connection, there is a very pretty consideration of the effect of the collisions on the rotation of the moon, from which it appears that the rotation of the moon on its axis in the same period as its revolution around the earth, might be brought about by the impacts, as well as by the tidal retardation as explained by Ferrel and George Darwin. When thus adjusted, the frequency of vertical impacts would be still further increased. Here the merit of Mr. Gilbert's address lies. The suggestion of the formation of lunar craters by meteoric impact is not novel. The suggestion of their formation by impact of moonlets is new; yet this alone, if undeveloped, would be a contribution of small value. But the ingenious and logical discussion of the angle at which im-

pacts would most frequently occur is an admirable example of scientific deduction. It fortifies the whole theory.

The weakest point seems to us to lie in the assumption that the moonlets all moved in a single plane; for it is hardly possible to imagine that the internal and external perturbations to which these numerous little bodies would be subject, could have allowed them always to move in so orderly a fashion. The wide departures of the asteroids from a common orbital plane is well known; and if even only a moderate departure from a plane be admitted for the moonlets, their average angle of incidence on the lunar surface might be decidedly altered from the favorable values determined by the assumed conditions of simpler movement. It may be that the action of lunar attraction and the influence of agreement in the periods of lunar rotation and revolution would still determine a sufficient number of vertical impacts for the demands of observation, but this matter is not considered in the address. Another weak point appears to be in the essential absence on the lunar surface of very elliptical craters, such as would certainly sometimes be formed by oblique impacts. Such impacts would be relatively rare, but the very elliptical craters are still rarer. The centre of the visible face of the moon is just where they might be expected to occur, and yet there they are conspicuously absent. This point needs further elucidation.

Mr. Gilbert does not stop at the deductive stage of his study. He has carefully examined the moon's face through the great Washington equatorial telescope; he has measured lunar photographs taken at the Lick Observatory in California; and he has experimented on impacts with artificial moonlets. Moreover, he suggests a rational explanation for certain correlated lunar forms; for example, the common occurrence of flat floors within the larger craters is ascribed to the greater amount of heat generated by the larger colliding moonlets, whereby the bottom of the cavity is melted and a level surface is assumed before solidification ensues. The smaller craters are relatively deeper, but do not show equally distinct signs of melting. The central hills by which many craters are ornamented are referred to an undulating reaction following impacts which produce a proper relation of viscosity, easily imitated by experiment. Certain peculiar radiating features around the Mare Imbrium are explained as the result of impact of an excessively large moonlet, by which a great amount of lunar material was more or less melted and caused to rush out on all sides, partly obliterating older craters. Even the great white streaks radiating from Tycho are explained as splashes from a violent collision, in accordance with an unpublished suggestion of Mr. W. Wüdermann of Washington which calls for the abandonment of the general belief in their origin as cracks in the lunar surface.

Many of our readers with an inclination towards astronomy may like to renew their telescopic acquaintance with the moon in the light of Gilbert's interpretation of its features. Astronomers in particular will do well to re-examine the lunar surface most carefully, to confirm or contradict Gilbert's explanations. Others, who may prefer the philosophical aspect of the studies of nature, will here find food for reflection on the instability of knowledge. The belief in the former volcanic activity of the moon is ingrained in nearly all our standard astronomical literature. If this is to be eradicated, what will go next? The evidence (from imperfect analogy) on which the

volcanic theory has been so long sustained needs to be carefully revised.

#### TOWN GOVERNMENT ON CAPE COD.

HYANNIS, April 15, 1893.

It seems to be generally believed that New England town government is losing its efficiency, partly because of the influx of people who have not the tradition of the town meeting, and partly because of the changed conditions of growth, which drain the smaller towns or build up centres of population within them. Yet in many parts of New England the town meeting remains the assembly of a virile little commonwealth, and the proceedings are as varied, as interesting, and instructive as those of colonial times. Such a town is Barnstable on Cape Cod, about seventy-five miles southeast of Boston. Cape Cod, although for two centuries and a half the home of an active seafaring people, remains to this day one of the few corners of American America. From Buzzard's Bay to Provincetown there are scarcely any foreigners, except a few recently arrived Portuguese; and on the whole Cape there is no village of more than 3,000 inhabitants. Barnstable, though the largest in area, covering no less than 482 square miles, is a typical Cape Cod country colonial town. Its people are proud of dating their foundation back to 1639, but the population of 4,000 is so widely scattered that there are thirteen post-offices within corporate limits. As yet no prominent village has sprung up. Nevertheless, into this colonial paradise has crept the serpent which sooner or later destroys the wild beauty, steps up the footpaths, and appropriates the shore. The true villagers recognize only two categories—"people" and "summer folks"; the latter have established themselves in Cotuit, Osterville, and Hyannis Port, but they are still, for the most part, birds of passage. Even "the people" in town meeting show two distinct interests. The town has water fronts both on Massachusetts Bay and on Vineyard Sound; the villages lie on one or the other of the slopes; between them is a long ridge of irregular moraine hills, embracing many beautiful lakes and the homes of the farmers. Of this wide-awake, intelligent, and canny folk from two hundred to two hundred and fifty assembled in town meeting on Saturday, April 8, 1893.

The place of meeting illustrates one of the difficulties of the town government: among the numerous villagers and hill-dwellers it has long been found impossible to select any centre of population which is convenient to everybody; hence the town house is built at a cross-roads, several miles from any village, and convenient to nobody. As we drove up we saw horses hitched in the woods, and the covered buggies reminded one of a Western camp-meeting. Within, one found a room about forty by eighty feet, and fifteen feet high; upon one side stands a row of Australian voting booths, and a raised platform with a table for the moderator, town clerk, and the dignified editor of the local newspaper. In front of the platform is a "bema" raised one step for the accommodation of the speakers. The room is not an unattractive home for a free popular assembly.

When we reached the building, at about eleven o'clock, the meeting had been in progress for about two hours, and was destined to continue, with little intermission, until about six o'clock. Seated on the rows of benches, facing the moderator, was a typical American concourse; as if to emphasize their rarity, the one negro and one Irishman whom I noticed were both almost

caricatures of their race. There were probably one or two Portuguese; otherwise the men present were all of the most distinct American type. The striking feature was the considerable number of elderly men; at least one-third appeared to be above fifty-five years of age, and they displayed every known variety of beard. Nevertheless, a number of well-grown boys were present; the principal of the high school told me that his boys regularly attended the town meeting, and took pleasure in it. On the other hand, the few rich men of the town were not present, or appeared to take little interest in the town meeting. The only permanent division visible was that between the village men, who favored improvements and liberal expenditures, and the farmers, who were inclined to vote down such luxuries as new school-houses, parks, and bicycles.

In its procedure the meeting justified the conventional praises of the town meeting. I had an opportunity to see two moderators in action, inasmuch as the forenoon session was an adjourned meeting from a previous day, and the afternoon session was a special town meeting summoned by warrant. The first moderator was a brisk and talkative man, for whom the meeting was rather too much; his method was to appeal to the selfish propensities in his auditors. "Gentlemen," he cried, "please come to order; you can't expect to have people hear you if you make so much noise that you can't hear them." But it must be admitted that he secured excellent order and almost perfect attention to the speakers. The second moderator was a brisk young retired sea-captain, and held the meeting much better in hand. He was chosen by a long-protracted ballot, and began his services with the inevitable little speech upon the necessity of co-operation between the meeting and the presiding officer. His decisions were quick and to the point. He was not to be confused by points of order, although he had a habit of putting the question upon amendments and then announcing the question carried as amended without a second vote. He seemed to show the effect of the training of the town meeting in developing a clear-headed knowledge of parliamentary business, and greatly pleased the assembly by announcing that he would consider no question doubted unless seven asked for it by a show of hands. The long and complicated business which was before him was despatched neatly and quickly.

Most interesting to me was the character of the debate. As in every such assembly, four or five men did one-half the talking, but at every point men arose and made shrewd suggestions or proposed amendments. The traditional good humor of the town meeting was preserved. Roger Williams accused one of his enemies of calling another "Jackanapes boy in our Towne meeting"; and it is a tradition that in the town meeting of Wellfleet, further down the Cape, matters once came to such a pass that a motion was introduced, but voted down, that it should be out of order for one man to call another "a darned fool" in discussion. Such personalities were almost wanting in the Barnstable town meeting. There were some charges of misrepresentation and some allusion to the non-payment of debts, which the hearers probably understood better than the reporter; but the meeting showed great patience with the dull and with those who spoke again and again upon the same subject. So far did this courtesy extend that a non-voting resident of the town who was present was allowed by a vote of nearly three to two to address the meeting. "Give both sides a chance" was the argument which pre-

vailed. The speeches were for the most part marked by good language, aptness, and forcible expression, and by an occasional racy directness that suggested "Old-Town Folks." "You can't carry your money with you," said an advocate of liberal appropriations for schools; "give it to your children and grandchildren." A few men in the meeting carried weight from their known character, their long experience, or their position as selectmen, but the meeting seemed very much disposed to follow out its own judgment on all questions before it.

The formal business was especially interesting to a novice. One constable was to be elected. The previous incumbent had no opposition, and the usual motion to authorize the Secretary to cast a ballot was carried out, but a formal motion to declare the polls closed was thought necessary before the ballot could be cast. Then followed an entertaining and instructive discussion of the "town business." The reporter was in the position of a member of the meeting who asked, "What this town's business is comprised at?" It was proposed that the "town business" be sold at auction, whereupon a dispute arose between the two constables, both of whom desired to acquire this mysterious privilege. It appeared that one of them had performed the "town business" last year for \$15.50, but that the other constable the previous year had done it for \$3.75. The moderator then defined the town business to be the notification of the officers of the town by personal summons and the posting up of notices of town-meetings. A very amusing auction now ensued, and the moderator got bids by successive reductions of halves, quarters, and even five cents; he finally disposed of his commodity for \$3.75, to the great enjoyment of the meeting. A similar struggle now came up over the collection of the dog-tax, for which it appeared the town had paid the previous year the sum of \$49.50. A discontented citizen moved to put that service up at auction, being confident that he could do the business for a lower figure. It was explained that the collector of the dog-tax received a proportion of the tax on every dog that he discovered, and that in consequence the revenue to the town had greatly increased; the old system was therefore left undisturbed.

The most important question before the meeting was that of the public schools. Appropriations had been made at a previous meeting, and the excellent system of having a paid superintendent, which has been introduced into many of the country schools of Massachusetts, had been discussed. The town meeting accepted the system, but refused to continue the salary of \$1,500. It was then moved and carried that the salary of the superintendent should be \$1,499. The question that next came up was that of building a new schoolhouse in Hyannis, which would accommodate the town high school and the local grammar schools, at an expense of about \$15,000. It appeared that there are eighteen schoolhouses in the town, of which five are in the village of Hyannis; and it was strongly urged upon the meeting that the saving of running expenses by the consolidation of several buildings would eventually clear the cost of the new building. The farmers, however, rallied against it, and without a thorough debate it was indefinitely postponed. This procedure aroused the wrath of a leading man, and he asked permission of the meeting to spend ten minutes in addressing them "upon an important subject." With great good humor, it was voted, and he then proceeded to express a

very positive opinion of men who would not vote taxes for school purposes because they had no children to send to the schools. This drew out several other speakers, each of whom received a like permission to address the meeting for five or ten minutes, and it was interesting to see with how much respect were received the speeches of two experts—the principal of the high school and the superintendent of schools. Having thus finally brought the question to the attention of the town meeting, the friends of the new building were content to adjourn without action.

Another question which brought out a very different side of town life was that of roads. The town of Barnstable has three hundred miles of highway, and last year spent \$12,000 on them, or \$3 per capita. This year the appropriation has been cut down to \$8,500. The people living in one section of the town apparently were dissatisfied at the neglect of their thoroughfares; one of them assured the town meeting that "ruts on Race Lane are eight or nine inches deep, and it was the same on the tow-path." They therefore desired a special appropriation to be spent by a man in whom they had confidence. The town meeting declined to take Race Lane out of the hands of the newly established superintendent of streets. Next came the question whether the town would buy a road-machine, and it brought out two rival theories as to the expenditures on highways: one party desired to buy a road-machine which would be useful in grading up the earth roads; the other party wanted to buy a stone-crusher, thus, of course, looking towards a system of macadamized roads. The country towns are notoriously indifferent about their own highways, and this was no exception; the road-machine people carried the day. Now came in a new question. It appeared that a rich man in the town, known as "The Cranberry King," had bought a road-machine which he had for several years lent to the town. A proposition to take the machine off his hands and pay him for it was not carried, and finally it was voted to appropriate \$500 "to purchase one or more road-machines and one or more road-rollers," and the town meeting passed to another item on the warrant.

It was striking to see how little allusion in the debates on roads was made to the fact that summer people would be attracted by well-kept and picturesque highways; but the public-spirited man who had berated the meeting for not voting for the schoolhouse again came forward with a proposition which brought out the difference of interest between the farmers and the villagers. He urged that the town acquire a strip of land along each side of the wooded highways for permanent shade-trees. Many of the Barnstable roads are ribbon roads winding through beautiful tracts of woodland, the delight of pleasure-drivers and pedestrians. The objection was made that the project "was poetic and visionary," and that it was a scheme to turn worthless land over to the town. To this the mover replied that he would give the strip bordering on his wood-lots, and that there was a large tribe of his kinsmen, most of whom, he thought, would do the same; and that it was the duty of people "to provide for posterity." Since it appeared that a tract of sixty acres had been recently offered for \$40, the danger of expense to the public did not seem startling. Nevertheless, the opinion of the meeting seemed to be against the suggestion, and it was recommitted for later report.

In a Boston town meeting in 1731 the two principal items of business were "Proposed to Consider about Repairing mr. Nathaniel Wil-



liams, His Kitchen, &c.": "Voted an Intire Satisfaction in the town in the late conduct of their Representatives in endeavoring to preserve their valuable privileges." The business of the Barnstable town meeting fell into two similar categories. Matters of State policy having been disposed of, the town meeting proceeded to discuss a new set of by-laws, which illustrates the parental interest of New England town government. The by-laws were taken up section after section, and the debate showed a keen examination of the report and bristled with amendments. The selectmen (only persons of inferior civilization say *selectmen*) were several times called upon to explain their manner of doing business. On only two questions was there a very serious difference of opinion. The first was upon an article providing "That no person shall propel, drive, wheel, or draw any bicycle . . . upon any sidewalk in town." This proposition brought out the event of the day: a young man arose, whose address of "Mr. Moderator and fellow-citizens of the town of Barnstable" preceded a very fiery speech. He informed his fellow citizens that from seven thousand to eight thousand dollars had recently been invested in bicycles in the town of Barnstable, and that the owners of this capital would lose heavily if they were relegated to the ordinary highway. The bicyclist force then brought forward a counter-proposition by which the bicyclist was to be limited only to a space of ten feet from any person whom he might approach on the sidewalk, and might remount when he was ten feet on the other side. A complication was caused by the horse-owning element, which protested against the danger to horses when hitched alongside the sidewalk. When the champion of the bicycle interest arose again, he was confronted with the statement that he was not a citizen and was not entitled to take part. As he had lived in the town for many years, the meeting good-naturedly voted to give him a second opportunity to defend his favorite sport.

The next important question was on a paragraph prohibiting the throwing of refuse into the streets, and a debate was precipitated on the critical scientific question whether or no coal ashes were harmful. It appeared that some citizens were in the habit in the month of April of reinforcing their own sidewalks with the year's accumulation of ashes, and thus relieving the town from expense. A milkman, however, represented the opposing interest of the horse-owners, whose animals got nails in their feet from the coal ashes. The debate even brought in the question of the effect of coal ashes on ladies' trains. The ashes question was further complicated with the question whether scallop-shells should be put upon the same basis as oyster and clam-shells, so as to be dumped in the roads. The town meeting was by this time tired and not entirely amiable, and found it difficult to agree on this or on a question of trespass by hens, turkeys, and geese upon the land of their owners' neighbors.

Every one acquainted with legislative bodies knows that the temper of an assembly and the characteristics of its members are better brought out by small questions than by great ones. The good humor, the acuteness, the skill in stating argument, and the general self-control of the Barnstable meeting were admirable, and one can look forward only with regret to the far-distant time when a representative city council shall take the place of this rural republic.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

#### AFTER THE SECOND READING.

LONDON, April 22, 1893.

THE Home Rule Bill has been before the country since its introduction by Mr. Gladstone on the 13th of February. Four days were occupied by the preliminary discussion, in the House of Commons, and twelve by the debate on the second reading. This debate was wound up by Mr. Gladstone between twelve and one last night in a hopeful and confident speech, delivered with almost youthful vigor and vivacity. And the second reading was carried by 347 votes to 304 upon a probably unprecedented division, all the 670 members being represented—the Speaker, 4 tellers, 7 absent pairs, and 651 voters.

Except for a few memorable speeches, the debate was dreary in the extreme; it was really addressed to the outside public. Nothing that could be said was likely to affect a single vote. It was not a discussion concerning the application of opposite politics to the government of Ireland. All through was apparent the hopelessness of the Conservative position, in its contentment with the present or rather late management of Ireland, its insistence that the Irish are an essentially inferior and unreliable people, its vague suggestions that as ninety-three years have brought one-fourth of the population into acceptance of the Union, so time may similarly change the sentiments of the other three-fourths. The speeches of the Liberals have helped to draw, more closely than ever before, the hearts of the Irish members and the people they represent to the Liberal statesmen and the masses of the British people. The contentions of the Conservatives tend more than ever to alienate the people and harden into antagonism even the mildest spirits below the gangway. "We hoped past evils were irrevocable, but if you win, they will return, and we are ready for a renewal of the conflict," was the feeling that often found utterance, as the policy was advocated of our being for ever outlawed from the liberties enjoyed by all other English-speaking peoples.

Long and close will be the conflict in committee; short shrift will the bill receive from the Lords; and then, perhaps, an autumn session, another motion for introduction, another second reading, another discussion in committee, another relegation to the Lords, another rejection. And then? Probably another general election, the result of which no one can foresee. Whatever the course of events, to quote the concluding passage of Mr. Morley's speech on Tuesday—

"One thing is certain. Younger men may have to take up the battle. But conceptions of the justice of the Irish claim have rooted themselves in the breasts of a generation of Englishmen. They will never pass away. Those who have built up the alliance between the British and Irish people may rest confident that it cannot fail, and sooner or later—probably sooner than later—we shall see the home-rule ideal realized, and Irishmen invited to govern their country, which Englishmen have so lamentably misgoverned."

The Irish people generally were never more reasonable, hopeful, and resolute than they are at present. For the first time since the Union, they are on absolutely firm and safe ground. The delays and trials of the last seven years have been a salutary discipline. The extravagant anticipations engendered for a time by the Land League agitation have been outlived. Service in the Imperial Parliament has had great educational influence upon the Irish representatives, and through them upon their constituents. The defiant green-flag utterances which fifteen years ago passed current in Ire-

land are now obsolete. Mr. Balfour never more strikingly displayed his real or feigned ignorance of the spirit of the Irish nation than last night, when he surmised that nothing more serious was to be dreaded from the ultimate refusal to concede home rule than that there might be "a renewal of crime, mutilation of cattle, a few more defenceless people shot down." The Irish Parliamentary party has become a finely tempered and formidable weapon. Under Parnell, union and strength were attained more by pressure and prestige than by full conviction and the natural assertion of individual character. Sad and disgraceful doings have there been since his deposition. The Irish people have, however, been compelled to rely upon and assert political intelligence. The result has been the election of a stronger and better party. The best of the old have been retained, backed by a steadier and more reliable, if perhaps less brilliant, rank and file. Edward Blake is in himself a power.

The improved temper of this party has been demonstrated and its prestige increased, within the past few weeks, by its insistence upon the settlement of differences between leaders which at one period threatened disastrous consequences. Among the Parnellite nine are most of the best men who adhered to the fallen leader. Gratitude and aggressive anti-clericalism are their warrant for the maintenance of a separate party. They have apparently laid aside the hillside proclivities, the hatred of Mr. Gladstone and suspicions of the Liberals on which Mr. Parnell based his appeal to the Irish people to follow him back into the wilderness of ill-defined aspirations and impractical revolt out of which he had once led them. A better feeling exists between the two parties, though entire fusion is not to be expected. John Redmond, with his undeniable abilities, is a more prominent figure as leader of nine than he would be as one among other leaders of eighty-one; and his followers in their present attitude enjoy the satisfaction and advantages of being Home-Rulers, combined with the sweets of comparative independence. There is no reason why they should again submit to the trammels of party service, so long as their constituents are content. At future elections, personal ambitions will doubtless assert themselves, and we shall again have contests between the opposite wings. But there is ground for confidence that the common sense of both will prevent the danger and disgrace of home-rule seats being lost to the common enemy.

So much for the position of the Liberal party and the strength of the Irish home-rule forces. The measure is met in Ireland by an opposition such as perhaps, short of civil war, has never before been presented by the minority in a country to the wishes of the majority. Fears as craven were expressed regarding Catholic Emancipation; threats as martial were indulged in against Disestablishment; prognostications as confident of ruin were uttered respecting changes in the land system; more numerous and bulkier petitions have often been rolled up the floor of the House against Irish reforms. But never before was there such a consensus of opinion expressed in so complete and determined a manner against a proposed change. From Girls' Friendly Societies, Orange Lodges, Temperance Leagues, Chambers of Commerce, the wives and daughters of clergymen, Protestant town councilors, brokers and stockbrokers; from Churchmen and Quakers, Methodists, Baptists, Unitarians, and Independents, comes a united protest, a united prophecy of certain ruin, bank-

ruptcy, contention, bloodshed, and civil war, resulting from the concession of a system of local government which, as applied to other countries, has invariably promoted prosperity and union. This (even to the best-instructed) unexpected concurrence in vehement opposition from certain classes is, beyond question, serious, and immensely complicates the problem and increases the difficulty of the situation. Of all those who have spoken in favor of the bill, Mr. Morley, perhaps, most fully grasps the formidableness of this opposition from Protestant Ireland and the uncertainty it involves. Time and patience alone can overcome it; the time may, however, be protracted, and patience may be sorely tried.

The principal actual reasons for this opposition must be recognized. Second only to what exists in a slaveholding oligarchy is the extent to which in Ireland power, place, pay, and prestige are in the hands of the Protestant minority; and support of this monopoly in Ireland is the best weapon left in the hands of the British aristocracy for the maintenance of their own waning prerogatives. Perhaps only inhabitants of the United Kingdom can gauge the ascendancy which rank, grace, style, and appearance here still exercise. Wealth, with all that gives wealth its chief value in the estimation of the richest community in the world, is threatened, and, as might be expected, that wealth is being lavishly spent for its own preservation. The twenty-seven peers whose presence gave such éclat to the Albert Hall demonstration to-day, are stated to draw above £400,000 per annum from Irish rents. Reading of paid anti-home-rule excursionists by the thousand being conveyed free this lovely spring weather from England to Ireland and from Ireland to England, and from one demonstration to another in both countries, waited on by Primrose dames and high-born ladies, entertained at their tables, guests in their houses, amid everything to charm the eye and ear and sense, our thoughts revert to the long years of grinding struggle, the individual sacrifices, the bitter hopeless conflict through which the Irish Nationalists have passed, to see their modified and reasonable desires so nearly granted.

There can be little question which policy is likely finally to prevail—the government of the country on the responsibility and for the benefit of a class, or on the responsibility and for the benefit of all its inhabitants. The really important point at the present juncture is the effect produced upon the average British elector by this Orange-Protestant outburst, these direct threats of armed resistance encouraged by ex-Cabinet Ministers, this marshalling of volunteers, this preparation of lint and bandages by circles of ladies hitherto dedicated to missionary work. Those who should know Ulster better than I, maintain that a much larger proportion of its Protestants than openly confess it are at heart Home-Rulers, and that the present ferment cannot be maintained. Those who know the English constituencies better than I, declare the Ulster outcry will have little effect upon them, that their minds are made up, that it will tend only to strengthen their longing to be quit of this intolerable and interminable Irish question. However this may be, affairs in Ireland can never again be as they were before the introduction of this bill. The Irish minority, scattered through and living upon the majority, have openly and individually put hand and seal to declarations distrusting the majority and intimating their unworthiness of the rights of free citizenship. We must have either the widening of

the chasms that have hitherto divided Irish society, the renewal, intensifying, and perpetuation of class and religious hatreds, the interminable stretching out into the future of an Irish difficulty, or else, under home rule, a commingling of all classes in forgetfulness of the past, in common interests and common responsibilities.

D. B.

## Correspondence.

### SICKLES AT GETTYSBURG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of May 4 contains a letter describing a visit to the battle-field of Gettysburg, in which "H. W." gives what purports to be the reply of Gen. Longstreet to a question regarding the effect upon the second day's battle produced by Sickles's advance to the Peach Orchard. This "H. W." regards as effectually disposing of all military criticism on the subject.

As one of the critics thus summarily disposed of, I have no desire to enter on the whole question at this time, but content myself with observing that if Gen. Longstreet really said what "H. W." attributes to him, then Gen. Longstreet must have lost a very large part of those powers which once made him formidable to his enemies.

As stated by "H. W.," Longstreet's argument is, in effect, this: "Sickles's troops at the Peach Orchard detained me an hour. As a result, I was five minutes late at Little Round Top. Therefore, if Sickles had not advanced to the Peach Orchard, I should have had fifty-five minutes to spare in getting possession of that hill, which was the key of the position." But suppose that some of Sickles's troops, instead of being in the Peach Orchard, had been on Little Round Top, where they were intended to be; what then? Gen. Sickles will hardly assert that the splendid brigade of Trobriand or Ward would not have "stood off" the Confederate troops just as effectually as Vincent's brigade did.

The line of reasoning attributed to Gen. Longstreet fails to consider where Sickles's troops would have been had they not gone forward to the Emmetsburg road. It assumes that, unless Sickles had moved up, there would have been no troops on Little Round Top; whereas the very essence of the criticism upon Sickles's action is that he ought to have occupied that hill in force, as Gen. Meade expected him to do, instead of completely uncovering it, as he did by his advance, leaving it to be, in the result, defended only through the accidental arrival of Vincent's brigade from the Fifth corps, called in by Gen. G. K. Warren.

The plea sometimes made that Sickles did not have troops enough to hold the straight line assigned him is seen to be absurd in face of the fact that the bent line he actually took was much longer, besides being subject to a distressing enfilade. FRANCIS A. WALKER.

BOSTON, May 5, 1893.

### A REMINISCENCE OF GENERAL JACKSON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In looking recently over Parton's 'Life of Jackson' (vol. iii., ed. 1860), I came across the incident of the attempt of Lawrence upon his life. It may be of some interest, at least to the outgoing generation, to have the state-

ment of probably the only surviving witness of that scene.

At the time, 1835, I was about nine years old, and had gone with my parents and a party of friends to Washington the preceding day to attend an evening reception at the White House. I was taken to the reception, and a few kind words, with the President's hand resting upon the child's head, impressed the boy and made more vivid the events of the following day. The next morning we went to the Capitol to witness the funeral of a deceased member of the House. It was attended by the high officials of the Government. The ceremony took place in the old House of Representatives. Arriving late, we were compelled to stop just inside the door, so that when the services ended we were among the first to step into the little corridor or antechamber outside the House. We divided and ranged ourselves so as to allow the Presidential party to file past. This placed me almost facing the door of the House and in front of the President as he entered the corridor. I see the whole scene now—the tall, gaunt form of the General coming slowly out, the interior of the Chamber filled with its waiting crowd, and our little group standing in position.

Just then a stranger sprang suddenly from the left of the President, levelled his pistol at short range, and snapped. Of course it was the work of an instant, and all was commotion and stir. I do not recollect a second pistol, as Parton states; but I see now very vividly the old General with uplifted cane rushing forward, exclaiming, "Let me at the rascal!" Of course he was seized by his friends, as was also "the rascal," and so the affair ended. Lawrence was, upon examination, found to be irresponsible and was discharged. It is well known that the President, in the then bitter strife of parties, attached political significance to the assault, but that was without foundation.

Mr. Parton states that the General had passed through the great rotunda and was about stepping on to the portico. This does not accord with the fact. The locality was in the small corridor leading from the House to the rotunda. That is in itself of no great importance, but it is as well to have the details accurate.

I assume that I am now the only survivor of the scene, as I was then a mere child and those about me were few and all of matured years.

This was the first development in our national history of the ambitious crank. It took a long interval to evolve the more successful crimes of Booth and Guiteau.

R. J.

BALTIMORE, May, 1893.

### NEWSPAPER PICTURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have only now read your excellent article on "Newspaper Pictures," in your issue of April 27, but I hope it is not too late to express my appreciation of the stand you are taking against "Babyism" in journalism. And please call it Babyism, not "Babyhood."

Being a Mugwump, I have been for years subscribing to the *Nation* and the New York *Times*. My feelings were sufficiently lacerated when the last-named paper announced that it would henceforth be a Democratic instead of an independent newspaper, and began printing paragraphs from hide-bound Democratic papers applauding it for throwing off the last vestige of Mugwumpery. But now that the *Times* has gone into the cut business, and takes pride in at last being fully up to date, do you



wonder that I rejoice to see that my subscription expires on May 6?

Is this babyism going to overwhelm the whole country? It certainly has at present entire possession of the business of advertising. If A.'s baking-powder "leads all the rest," I suppose *Harper's Weekly* sees no reason why this "accurate information" should not be conveyed by a picture, in which a tin can, properly labelled, marches at the head of a procession, on the ground that this sort of thing, and doggerel verses far below the level of Mother Goose, form "the matter that is suited to the needs and tastes" of the American public.

Yes, Mr. Editor, call it Babyism, not Babyhood. Babyhood is an honorable estate—to be grown out of, to be sure—but chronic babyism is an abnormal state which we are in danger of growing into.—Very truly yours,

W. W. J.

BALTIMORE, MD., May 4, 1893.

## Notes.

FROM *Book Reviews*, the new trade organ of Macmillan & Co., we learn that this firm will begin next month its new edition of Charlotte Brontë's works in thirteen volumes, including a volume of unpublished letters. They have also in press 'Mr. Punch's Pocket Ibsen,' by F. Anstey; 'Women Adventurers' (in their Adventure Series), by Mrs. Henry Norman; and a reprint of 'Poems by Two Brothers (Tennyson),' from the 1827 edition, with additions, viz., four unprinted poems from the MS., and the prize poem of the future laureate, "Timbuctoo."

The *Book-Buyer* brings word that six dainty little volumes will be made up of 'Stories from *Scribner's*,' a selection from the shorter tales that have appeared in the magazine in recent years.

The present month will witness the publication, by Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, of 'Die Wahrheit über Emin Pascha, die ägyptische Äquatorialprovinz und den Sudan,' by Vita Hassan, former physician and apothecary of that province. The work covers the tranquil and the stormy periods of Emin's rule, and ends with his reluctant return with Stanley. Towards the close of the year the same house will publish 'Emin Pascha in seinem Auftrage geschildert von Dr. Franz Stuhlmann,' richly illustrated, to be followed by a second volume, by several hands, dealing with scientific results. This latter will form the first volume of a monograph on German-Africa and bordering lands. Another interesting work will be 'Unter den Naturvölkern Central-Brasiliens,' a narrative of the second Xingú expedition of 1887-'88, by Prof. Dr. Karl von den Steinen.

In a discursive manner, not without its charm, Mr. J. W. Barry, in his 'Studies of Corsica' (London: S. Low, Marston & Co.), tells of the present condition of the island, sketches its past history, and describes life at Ajaccio and the scenery of its immediate neighborhood. It is not a very attractive picture. The houses are gloomy and dirty, with no comforts. There is no society, except that to be found in the café or public square. The men are idle and with singularly petty aims, inveterate and noisy talkers. The women either are mere drudges or live secluded lives, broken only by religious observances. The climate and the scenery are fine, but there is apparently but one drive, and the rambles in the "bush," or low scrub which clothes the hills, are difficult and not always safe. This

"bush," however, was the principal attraction to Mr. Barry, who devotes several chapters to an account of its sweet-scented flora and rather scanty fauna. The Corsican dialect is described and its relation to the other Mediterranean languages shown, while in an appendix are gathered some curious specimens of the ballads current among the people. The closing chapter is devoted to an account of the bandits, or outlaws more properly, men who are "wanted" by the police, generally for murder, and numbering usually from two to five hundred. Their other wants are cared for by their relatives or the inhabitants of the villages to which they belong, and they are apparently seldom captured, but occasionally are slain by kinsmen of their victims, and now and then give themselves up for trial and punishment.

'Chaucer: The House of Fame, in three books,' edited by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, in the Clarendon Press Series (Macmillan), is merely a reprint of the appropriate pages of Prof. Skeat's excellent edition of the 'Minor Poems' (1888), with a short introduction, which adds a few useful notes but is less elaborate than one could wish. The book will of course be profitable to college classes and private students.

Mr. Alfred W. Pollard's 'Chaucer,' the last number of Macmillan's series of "Literature Primers," is a skilful piece of work. In 142 very small pages the author has contrived to sum up clearly and attractively almost everything essential that is known of the life of Chaucer and of the literary history of his works. What the general reader does not find in this volume he may safely do without until he ceases to be the general reader. Mr. Pollard is, of course, deeply indebted to Ten Brink, Skeat, and Lounsbury, but he follows nobody blindly, and now and then makes an original comment which, if not an addition to knowledge, is at least prompted by common sense. The whole primer can be read at a sitting, and (what is more important) will be so read by many persons to their great advantage. In a few instances Mr. Pollard has failed to express himself unambiguously, as when he says that "a foolish way of reading [Chaucer's] poems has caused him to be connected with 'Soler Hall' at Cambridge," or that "late in life Chaucer is said to have repented that he ever wrote the 'Troilus'"; but these slips are not common. A more serious defect is an occasional dimness of vision, to which we may ascribe the remark that Chaucer "owed practically nothing to earlier English literature," and the astonishing sentence in which it is suggested that the poet had probably "glanced at" "some seven" of the "long-winded romances," "if only for the purpose of his parody." A short practical bibliography would add greatly to the usefulness of the book, and we shall hope to see such a bibliography in the second edition, which will doubtless soon be called for.

'Longues et Brèves' is a collection of some twelve stories and three articles by François Coppée (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Amblard & Meyer Frères). Some of these, notably 'L'Enfant Perdu' and 'Paris,' have already appeared in other publications, but the reader will be glad to possess them in this more permanent form. Several of the tales are very well told and are fully worthy of the author's reputation. The first in the book, "Une Faute de Jeunesse," has for subject a case of conscience treated simply and forcibly and solved rightly. "Une Restitution" is an excellent hit at the despicable beneficiaries of the Panama swindle. "Vitrioleuse" is powerful and tender. There is no striving, in any of the

tales, after harrowing realism; the author is satisfied to tell his story clearly and intelligently, and does not disclaim a moral effect. There is no bad taste left in the mouth after reading the book.

Paul Bourget's 'Un Scrupule' (Amblard & Meyer) is a remarkably clever piece of literary workmanship on a subject which men of a certain sort might possibly talk about over their wine, but which is utterly unworthy of the skill displayed in treating it. The sensualism which is Bourget's chief characteristic, is even coarser than usual in this little work. The delicacy of analysis, viewed from a purely technical point of view, is admirable, but it is wasted, for the booklet cannot add to the author's reputation. The book is the first, the publishers state, brought out in French in this country under the new copyright law, and is in every respect like the other Lemerre publications.

'Modern Meteorology,' by Frank Waldo (London: W. Scott; New York: Scribners), is a valuable compendium of recent progress in that science by a former attaché of the Signal Service, well known for his interest in mathematical meteorology. No student of the subject can afford to be without it. Its appreciation involves a fair acquaintance with meteorology and a good understanding of physics, but its statements are presented in as simple terms as is consistent with accuracy. Its chief chapters concern sources of information, apparatus and observations, thermodynamics of the atmosphere, general and secondary motion of the atmosphere, and applied meteorology. Those who have not kept pace with the recent rapid strides made by physicists and mathematicians towards a solution of the problems of atmospheric movements, will be surprised at the amount of material offered for study in the chapters on the general and secondary systems of circulation. Mr. Waldo has done a great service to the science in bringing forward prominently the work of such modern investigators as Helmholtz, Von Bezold, Oberbeck, Hertz, and others.

In this connection mention should be made of No. 843 of the Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections, entitled 'The Mechanics of the Earth's Atmosphere,' a collection of translations by Prof. Cleveland Abbe of original memoirs by several of the investigators named above. The memoirs are difficult reading from the advanced quality of their mathematics; but they may be commended to the attention of mathematicians who wish to apply their best methods to the solution of atmospheric problems. The essay of perhaps the most general interest is by Helmholtz, concerning atmospheric waves. Such waves are sometimes made visible in cloud surfaces; but the author maintains that they must occur with great frequency, although invisible, whenever atmospheric strata of distinctly different densities flow past each other. The chief peculiarity of these waves is their great length from crest to crest: being over two thousand times greater than water waves under similar conditions as to velocity. Under favorable conditions, they may rise into crests sharp enough to break—that is, to cause admixture between the adjacent strata of air, or to cause expansion and cooling sufficient to provoke condensation in the damper stratum, thus forming those rippling clouds, equally spaced across the sky, which are not infrequently seen.

Compilation of corporation statistics for the use of investors has grown in magnitude and in accuracy of recent years. The success of 'Poor's Manual of Railroads' has stimulated

other compilers and publishers, until the investor's opportunity, to-day, for obtaining information relative to the history and present condition of investment corporations has become extraordinarily ample. Many of the faults of 'Poor's Manual'—among them its somewhat troublesome tabulation of matter—have been avoided in the bi-monthly Investors' Supplement to the *Financial Chronicle*, which has the double advantage of alphabetical arrangement and skilful tabulation of stock and bond statistics. A further undertaking in the same direction is represented in 'New York Securities,' a stout volume of 782 pages, which aims to exhibit the financial status of all corporations familiar to New York investors. It is the first of an annual series. The special excellences of this work are its alphabetical arrangement, its statistics concerning the many less-known corporations having offices in New York and Brooklyn, its reports of local banks and trust companies, and its convenient presentation of annual balance-sheets. It lacks the record of amount and date of regular interest payments on investment bonds, which is the special merit, from the investor's standpoint, of the other works referred to, and it cannot compare, for the uses of a statistician, with the comprehensive articles in 'Poor's Manual.' But outside the railway world its list is vastly more complete than that of any similar publication. The typography is excellent. The compilers are J. P. Crittenden and C. B. Helffrich.

The annual report of President Dwight of Yale dwells with satisfaction on the experiment of opening the Graduate Department to young women, of whom twenty-three in this way connected themselves with the University. One is struck also, in the same report, with the number and importance of the gifts to the University from women.

The great Federal-Confederate Atlas, which is being steadily issued by the War Department at Washington, has reached its fourteenth part. The five latest touch at some point or other most of the significant fields or campaigns, from Bethel down; but Atlanta receives conspicuous illustration, while Chickamauga, Chattanooga, Petersburg, the Red River expedition, and Sherman's march to the sea are hardly less extensively mapped. The total number of maps is very great.

The second instalment of Kiepert's "Grosser Hand-Atlas" (Berlin: D. Reimer) contains maps of France and of Eastern France; of the Rhine Province, Westphalia, and Hesse-Nassau; of Scandinavia, of which the plate called for few changes; and of the Nile country—to about 10° N. lat.—together with Western Arabia. We have already described the nature of this third edition of the Atlas, and need only repeat that each sheet is accompanied by appropriate statistical matter and by its special index. We have also to report the issuing of Part ix. of the large-scale map of the German Empire published by Perthes at Gotha (New York: B. Westermann). The two sections are denominated Frankfurt and Breslau, and now but a third of the empire remains to be filled out.

The principal article in *Petermann's Mittheilungen* for March is an account of an exploration in northwestern Patagonia. There is also a brief notice of the recent successful crossing of south-central Africa by Dr. James Johnston, who undertook the journey for the purpose of ascertaining whether the Jamaica negroes could be used for missionary purposes either as artisans or teachers. The result does not appear to have been encouraging, as he was

obliged to send back all of the six negroes who accompanied him. A supplemental number—the ninth of the valuable series of statistical tables of population—gives the names and the number of the inhabitants of all the cities and considerable towns in the world, with the exception of those in India and Canada. The progress of the great agglomerating movement is shown by the list of cities containing more than 100,000 inhabitants, which, twenty years ago, were only 165, but are now 270. Of these there are 120 in Europe, 107 in Asia, and 43 in America.

Mr. F. C. Selous, the well-known African sportsman and explorer, contributes to the *Geographical Journal* for April an interesting account of his twenty years' wanderings in Zambesia (or Rhodesia, as it is now proposed to call the territory of the British South Africa Company, after the enterprising premier of Cape Colony). He dwells at some length upon Mashonaland and its antiquities. While agreeing with Mr. Bent as to the Arabian origin of the builders of the existing ruins, he believes not that they were exterminated, but that they were gradually fused with the aborigines, and that the descendants of this mixed race still inhabit this region. As confirmatory of this theory, he points to the frequently recurring Asiatic or Semitic type of face, together with comparatively light-colored skins, to be observed among the natives, and to the fact that they use the same ornaments for their pottery and weapons, and, up to the middle of the present century, built walls and foundations of stone and mined gold just as their ancestors had done two thousand years before. The raids of the Zulus have nearly destroyed this interesting people, who, a hundred years ago, were rich and prosperous, living in towns surrounded by well-built and loopholed stone walls, with cultivated fields and numerous flocks and herds. Now the country is almost a desert.

Irrigation and agriculture in Egypt form the subject of the principal article in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April. The author, Col. J. C. Ross, late inspector-general of this department, describes the different systems of irrigation employed from the earliest times to the present, shows what measures should be taken to relieve the soil from its ever-increasing saltiness, discusses the great problem of ancient irrigation, the situation of Lake Moeris, and the pressing question of reservoirs and water storage. In the interests of the fellahin, Col. Ross deprecates the too rapid construction of reservoirs; for, with increased facilities for irrigation, the land would rise in value and fall into the hands of rich foreign capitalists, and the peasant proprietors would inevitably sink into the condition of mere day laborers.

The Smithsonian Institution issues a circular calling attention to the Hodgkins fund prizes, established by a donation from Mr. T. G. Hodgkins of Setauket, N. Y., for the advancement of knowledge concerning the nature and properties of atmospheric air in connection with the welfare of mankind. The large sum of \$10,000 is offered as a prize for some new and important discovery on this subject; \$2,000 for the most satisfactory essay on the known properties of the air in relation to general research or on the proper direction of future research; and \$1,000 for the best popular treatise on atmospheric air, its properties and relationships. An annual gold medal is offered to mark important contributions to knowledge in this subject or to reward its practical applications. Grants of money may be made to specialists to aid in their investigations on atmospheric air. If the minor prizes are not awarded to essays

received by July 1, 1894, they will be withdrawn; and the conditions of the grand prize may be altered after the end of the same year. The explanatory circular may be had on application to the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington.

—The movement among American scholars, artists, and connoisseurs to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of the doctorate of Heinrich Brunn, who has been called the founder of modern archaeology, has united seventy-six subscribers in procuring a gold medal to be made at Tiffany's. Pending the completion of this token, a Latin address with signatures has been forwarded to Munich. The composition of this was intrusted to Prof. Lane of Harvard; it was engrossed on parchment with illuminations, in an alphabet of the time of the Emperor Claudius, and runs as follows:

Clives Americani Henrico Equiti De Brunn Philosophiae Doctori Iterum Ludovicae Maximilianae Universitatis professori publico ordinario a Consilio Sanctiore S. D. P.

Suam cum gaudio intelleximus adpropinquare diem anniversarium quo die Tv, vir invlstrissime, abhinc annos quinquaginta doctoris dignitatis gradum es adeptus. Quid quidem per tempus breve et exiguum vt regnorum anni nmerantur vt civitatum, grande tamen mortalis aevi spatium, ea es famae vsus celebritate ea felicitate quae vix eivguam in hoc genere praeter Te vnum contigit quovis enim quisque reperietur. Qvi modo vnuquam mediocriter hasce res attigit quin de Te et de tvis in omnis archaeologiae partis meritis avdierit, ita vt nomen tvum non iam tvum proprium sed commune archaeologiae esse videatur. Tv cum iam inde ab adolescentia perspexisses caecitire, vt tvis verbis tvamvr, archaeologiam sine philologiae lymine, diligentiam philologi hominis cum archaeologi cultv elegantiam nifore convinxisti, convinctam constanter conservasti. Tv historiam artium mvltis et lvculentis scriptis invlstrasti, Tv mvlta veterum artificum opera aut parvm intellecta aut explicata perperam rectis et veris omnium iudicio es interpretatus, Tv mvltorum disciplinarum studiis litterarils existitisti avctor dux favior, nunc eruditorem consensu Tv omnium archaeologorum qui vbiave sint principis locum optines. Quarum rerum memores amici transmarini homines, longinqui et alienigenae plerique etiam Tibi incogniti laeti lvcubentes merito gratulamvr hodierno die Tibi et felicitati tuae, Teque tamquam totius orbis terrarum incolam nostrum quoque civem agnoscentes, nostrum vindicamus, optimis omnibus et magna spe fore vti ad vitam tot et tantis commodis adfventem mvlti etiam anni mvltae res prosperae velut cumvlvs accedant. Dolemus autem vehementer quod temporis exiguitate impeditis non licet nisi per litteras quid sentiamvs quantvm speremvs declarare. Expressivis tamen signum et indicium nostrae erga Te observantiae, quod nunc cum maxime ex avro facimus, svo tempore mittetvr. Bene vale et nos dilige. Data A. D. vi Idvs Martias A CIO D CCC LXXXIII.

—Dr. Carl Oehsenius, the well-known geographer, contributes to a recent number of *Petermann's Mittheilungen* a note on one of the most interesting occurrences which have for many years been noted in the domain of geographical inquiry, and one which has a direct and important bearing upon the perplexing question of the distribution of plant and animal life upon the globe. Hooker and Darwin were the first to emphasize in the broadest way the influence of floating vegetation in a trans-oceanic dispersion of organic forms, and, after them, and with greater precision, Wallace formulated the lines and limitations of this mode of transport, obtaining through it a key to the solution of many of the anomalies associated with the faunas and floras of oceanic islands. This floating vegetation has generally been assumed to be in the nature of knotted river "rafts"—the tangle that is frequently floated out to sea, more particularly by the rivers of tropical countries, such as the Amazon and the Orinoco, and which, as a rule, consists of but a few tree-trunks closely matted together and more or less overgrown with living vegetation. Accidentally or otherwise, these floating islands have served to carry with them a number of animal forms which have found congenial habitations in their maze, and transplanted them to regions more or less distant from their true home. To what distance such transport could be effected had not been



ascertained, nor was it known as a fact that any large piece of vegetation could remain united in a protracted oceanic journey. The observations recorded by Oehsenius indicate that a floating island, covering when first seen an area of approximately a thousand square metres, and overgrown with vegetation to a height of some thirty feet, had been coursing over the broad Atlantic during the months of July to September last. It was first observed in latitude 39° 30' N., and longitude 65° W.; was again noted (August 26) in latitude 41° 49' and longitude 57° 39', and, finally, when nearly in the latitude of the Azores Islands, in latitude 45° 29', and longitude 42° 39' (September 19). The island had then traversed upwards of 1,200 miles, and had been travelling at an average rate of a mile an hour. It appears likely that its final destruction was brought about by the October storms. This seems to be the first instance recorded of an extended island journey, and it admirably sustains the postulate of the Darwinists, while it measurably weakens the arguments in favor of an "Atlantis" which have been borrowed exclusively from the conditions of faunal identity, present and past, that unite the trans-oceanic continents.

—Any one who has taken the trouble to compare recent English and French maps or statistical publications of Further India can easily have foreseen the present dispute between France and Siam. Roughly speaking, the one claims the river Mekong as the western frontier of her colony of Indo-China, while the other maintains that the proper boundary is a chain of mountains much nearer the sea. The French feel a good deal of irritation on the subject, as they believe that they were too yielding when the limits of their protectorate of Cambodia were fixed years ago; that now an attempt is being made to cheat them out of half the possessions which have cost them so much blood and money; and, particularly, that outsiders are meddling with what is none of their business. Several times questions about the matter have been asked in the House of Commons; and though the British Government, whether Conservative or Liberal, has refused to commit itself, it has plainly hinted that it did not accept the view of the case held in Paris. The real Minister of Foreign Affairs at Bangkok is a well-known Belgian political writer, Mr. Rolin-Jacquemyns; the Secretary of the Siamese Legation in Paris is an Englishman. Great Britain seems to have had little difficulty in getting an advantageous frontier for Burmah—the French think it was by promising Siam support in the east in return for concessions in the west, which has made her perfectly obstinate with them. Profiting by the fact that the troops in Annam and Tonking have had their hands full in keeping order on the coast and in the Red River delta, she has pushed her outposts further and further into the disputed region. At last the French have lost patience and have decided to occupy the territory, putting out the Siamese garrisons whenever they find them in their way. This operation has begun, so far without bloodshed, as the Siamese have retired when ordered to. Whether they will in the end get any part of what they claim depends on how far Mr. Gladstone and Lord Rosebery are willing to go in their behalf. Let us hope that, when boundaries are finally agreed upon, that of Cambodia may run a few miles to the north of the present one so as to bring under the care of France the wonderful ruins of Angkor-Vat, now so difficult of access.

—Much comment has been excited by a speech recently made by Prof. Jebb at the Mansion House, in the course of which he hinted at a movement for teaching Greek to the working people. What some newspapers are calling the modern renaissance of letters has at least progressed so far that a dozen people, fired by exhortations from Mr. Churton Collins to the effect that no satisfactory study of any literature was possible for those not grounded in Greek rudiments, have actually mastered them in ten months, and have satisfied an experienced Oxford examiner that they are qualified up to the standard of Responsions or "Smalls." These examinees work in shops and belong to the suburban neighborhood of Clapham, and their teacher was an Oxford man who chanced to be in Mr. Collins's audience, and volunteered there and then to instruct any who chose to act upon the lecturer's suggestion. Inquiries at other extension-centres near London have disclosed many others who are anxious for a similar opportunity. An amendment of the London extension programme, so as to include Greek teaching, appears to be imminent, for something analogous is under way at Oxford; and the Council of the Hellenic Society has appointed a committee to confer with the extension people at Oxford, Cambridge, and London. The result is likely to be some satisfactory scheme for meeting this new popular demand for rudimentary Greek instruction. On the other hand, the Hebdomadal Council of the University of Oxford has recently submitted to various Oxford Colleges a scheme looking towards an enlargement of facilities for popular instruction in the humanities. This has been done with the avowed intention of not leaving a new field of work entirely to the County Councils and their appropriations for manual and scientific training.

—In these latter days, to come upon a versifier who is a poet and who sings, not rhymes merely, is genuine satisfaction. José-María de Heredia, whose sonorous Spanish name adorns the title-page of a collection of verse, 'Les Trophées' (Paris: Lemerre), is not unknown to the French reading public. This book of his will surely win him many more admirers, for it is full of beauties, satisfying alike to intellect and imagination. He is distinctly not a decadent, a symbolist, in the sense that he is strong, manly, clear, and sure of what he wants to say. He is intelligible, even to an ordinary mind, or to a reader whose vocabulary does not include enough fifteenth-century French to follow Moréas in his pilgrimage. Heredia has felt, nevertheless, the influence of the school, as "infrangible," "ultime," and a few more such epithets attest; but he keeps it well under, and does not permit it to spoil the splendor of his verse or the imagery of his language. Color abounds in his work, rich, varied, gorgeous at times, a blaze of hues recalling and even rivalling the best passages, in this line, of Hugo. But color is not all, nor is it the main thing; there is a something to be said which is forcefully said by Heredia. The writer is wise, too, in his appreciation of what a theme will bear. He is dainty in his Grecian and Roman lyrics, strong in his barbaric strains; his pasticcio, or remembrance, rather, of Ronsard, is fairly delightful; his scenes from Breton nature are mysterious, as bessems strains from that land. His poems in this volume are divided into epochs—antiquity, middle-ages, modern times; and in each part are subdivisions, not equal in length or importance—sonnets all, save the last two poems. And of these sonnets some are so strikingly fine,

either in their entirety or in some of their parts, that they must be mentioned: "Stymphale," "La Chasse," "Nymphée," "Sur l'Othrys," "La Flûte," "Le Tepidarium," "La Trebbia"—a superb bit; the three on "Antoine et Cléopâtre," "Sur le livre des Amours de Pierre de Ronsard," and, to abbreviate the list, two Japanese subjects, "Le Samourai" and "Le Daimio." The last two poems, "Romancero" and "Les Conquérants de l'Or," are perhaps not as attractive as the sonnets which precede them: the story of the Cid can scarce be better told to French ears than it is in Corneille, and the Conquistadores have already had their turn in the sonnets. Nevertheless, there is a particularly fine ending to that poem.

—The compilers of the new 'Manuale della letteratura italiana' (Florence: Barbèra) are Prof. Alessandro D'Ancona and Prof. Racci, the first a scholar and writer on early Italian literature of more than national reputation. The two volumes before us cover the thirteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, as well as a portion of the fourteenth. A second part of the first volume will cover the period between Dante—included in the part already published—and Pulci, with whom the second volume begins. Other volumes, we infer, are to complete the work, which, the preface informs us, is intended primarily for the *lycees*. Were it of value only as a text-book in such schools, however, it would not be worth the attention of the foreign student of Italian literature. As a matter of fact, it will prove both an interesting and trustworthy guide for the novice, and a more compact handbook for the advanced student than any other yet published. The plan of the manual is not unlike that of Nannucci. Brief explanatory notes accompany the selections; each author's work is prefaced by a compact biography, and each century by an essay dealing with the literary as well as the general history of the period. To the whole is prefixed an excellent account, by Prof. Rajna, of the rise of the Italian language. The more philosophical side of the subject, the relations between the phenomena of literature and those of the other fine arts, are, perhaps, somewhat neglected, but the reader should rejoice in the accuracy and solidity of the facts presented to him, and in the fact that the notes give positive authority for all important statements, and point the way to the most recent and the most trustworthy sources of further information.

#### HUMAN EMBRYOLOGY.

*Human Embryology.* By Charles Sedgwick Minot, Professor of Histology and Human Embryology, Harvard Medical School. Wm. Wood & Co. 1892.

*Text-book of the Embryology of Man and Mammals.* By Oscar Hertwig, Professor Extraordinarius of Anatomy and Comparative Anatomy, Director of the II. Anatomical Institute of the University of Berlin. Translated from the third German edition [1890] by Edward L. Mark, Hersey Professor of Anatomy in Harvard University. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892.

THESE volumes are an honor to their writers, to Harvard University, and to the publishers. Whatever their shortcomings, they will prove more useful than any previous American books in rendering accessible the facts and generalizations of embryology, "the foundation-stone of our comprehension of organic

forms." So great is their scope and extent, and so technical the details, that it will be impossible here to do entire justice to either their excellences or their defects. Each represents an enormous amount of labor, not only in the really original portions, but also in the collation and coordination of the work of others, scattered through scores of journals and books in all modern languages. Notwithstanding the difference in title, they cover the same ground, viz., the development of the human body, supplemented and illumined by that of other animals. The degree in which what purports to be human embryology is really comparative may be judged from the fact that more than one-half the figures in Dr. Minot's work represent the lower animals, mostly vertebrates. Dr. Minot's treatise is practically the later by two years. It is the larger and handsomer. His figures are commonly better drawn, and the finer paper shows them to greater advantage. The book is, however, inconveniently heavy. Its bulk might have been reduced by the use of thinner paper and by putting into smaller type all historical matters and considerable sections relating to the lower animals. It would be convenient also if the book were bound in two volumes. In both works there are summaries, those of Hertwig-Mark being more numerous, complete, and categorical.

Dr. Minot's strongest sections are on the Uterus, the Theory of Sex, and Concrecence, and are based upon his well-known papers in the *Journal of Morphology* and the *American Naturalist*. Perhaps the weakest is that upon the brain, especially the cerebrum and its fissures. Hereon his personal observations are few and his acquaintance with literature comparatively superficial. Here, too, are most noticeable the defects of his terminological methods and his indifference toward the contributions of American anatomists. In view of the figures and explicit descriptions by many independent and competent observers of an orifice in the roof of the fourth ventricle in the adult human brain, the disposal of the subject with a passing expression of doubt borders closely upon presumption. Dr. Minot's treatment of the transitory fissures (p. 702) is less dogmatic, but hardly more acceptable. The conditions in man and other mammals might not suggest the "traditional division of the median portion of the fore-brain into two parts," but our author's declaration that such division is "arbitrary" merely evinces his lack of familiarity with the brain among fish-like vertebrates, notably the sharks and rays, certain ganoids, and *Chimæra*. The designation of the cerebellar segment of the brain as *metencephalon*, and the oblongatal segment as *epencephalon* (p. 599), was due (the reviewer is informed) to an oversight; but it is liable to mislead, since the same reversal of the commonly accepted appellations was made by Haeckel and occurs in the recent 'Elementary Biology' of Bidgood. In place of the phrases *brain and spinal cord*, *central nervous system and cerebro-spinal axis*, Dr. Minot frequently employs the mononym *neuron*, but without acknowledging either the source of that word or the fact that its introducer afterward adopted Robin's prior *neuraxis*, though perhaps on insufficient grounds.

In one respect at least Dr. Minot does little credit to the transatlantic education to which he ascribes "whatever merit his work may possess." In no treatise of like extent would a competent foreign naturalist have ignored so much available material produced by his countrymen without incurring the charge of either deliberate injustice to individuals or disregard for the scientific reputation of his native land. Three

examples must suffice. Among the early human embryos is not mentioned that of Prof. Henry Hun, M.D. (*American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, July, 1884); although neither description nor figure is complete, the evident early condition makes it noteworthy, and the specimen might have been had by Dr. Minot for fuller examination. The late Prof. Dalton is quoted only with respect to the *corpus luteum*; yet on p. 674 of the last edition of his 'Human Physiology' is figured a pig displaying the "normal temporary extrusion of the intestinal canal into the umbilical cord," which, so far as Dr. Minot is aware, occurs only in man. The account of the central fissure (pp. 698-700) is taken mostly from the paper by Prof. D. J. Cunningham of Dublin, and this British anatomist is followed by Dr. Minot in the non-mention of the much earlier paper by one of the latter's colleagues describing and figuring the brain of Chauncey Wright, one of the few presenting the embryologically suggestive complete interruption of that fissure.

The nomenclature of organs seems not to have gained special attention from Hertwig at the date of the third edition of his book (1890), although he is now a member of the committee on that subject of the Anatomische Gesellschaft. His own terms are, as is usual, nearly indiscriminately Latin or German, and Dr. Mark has "preferred to err on the side of a too literal rather than a too liberal translation." The Latin terms have been commonly retained, and the German rendered into vernacular English. Dr. Minot's views are set forth in his preface as follows:

"In regard to technical terms, I have made certain innovations. It seems to me important to make the number of terms as small as is compatible with clearness and to avoid duplication. Accordingly I have discarded the words *epiblast*, *mesoblast*, and *hypoblast*. Further, it has seemed to me that, as a thorough knowledge of German is indispensable to the student of embryology, it is justifiable, where no English equivalent is to be found, to adopt such unaltered German terms as have been fully established in embryological literature. Where there has occurred an accepted term in English, French, or German, I have used it in preference to a Greek or Latin derivative."

The first proposition is most commendable, although the doctrine is hardly an "innovation," having been preached and practised by certain anatomists in this country for ten years past. Students will thank Dr. Minot for the uniform use of *ectoderm*, *mesoderm*, and *entoderm* for the three principal layers at all stages of development. Yet the two longitudinal thickenings of the neural tube, which Loewe had already described, and which His had twice named *hinteres Mark-prisma* and *vorderer Mark-cylinder*, and *Flügelplatte* and *Grundplatte*, he rechristens *dorsal* and *ventral zones of His*—a bad matter made worse. There are also too many relapses into *poecilonymy*; for example, on p. 758 occur *appendix vermiformis*, *appendix*, and *vermiform appendix*, whereas on p. 160 had already been introduced, without explanation, the very convenient contraction of the third term into *vermic*. There may be sound reasons for the various employments on pp. 688 and 689 of *pineal gland*, *pineal body*, and *epiphysis*, but the average student would certainly fail to recognize them.

As to the second of Dr. Minot's terminological theses, it must be granted that he manifests the courage of his convictions, although candor compels us to doubt whether an angelic hesitation might not have been more becoming. Besides many French, over two hundred German words may be counted in his index,

and a still larger number besprinkle the text. The combination suggests the Franco-English jargon upon the dinner-card of a third-rate hotel. As merely an exercise in scientific German, certain paragraphs would have been more useful had the Latin or English equivalents always been added, but the inconsistencies are somewhat bewildering. *Deckplatte* is sometimes used and sometimes Anglicized as *deck-plate*; *Bodenplatte* remains unchanged. *Vorderdarm* is commonly capitalized and italicized as a German word, but the absence of these features on p. 461 indicates that it is adopted into English. After all, however, Dr. Minot's practice is better than his theory. He claims that a "thorough knowledge of German is indispensable to the student of embryology." A working familiarity with German may be essential to the embryological investigator, but, however desirable for the student and general reader, neither it nor any other language than his own should be required in order to profit by a professedly English book. One is almost tempted to wish that Dr. Minot had published his valuable treatise in Leipzig, and then intrusted the preparation of an American translation to some one not yet incurably affected by Germanomania.

The difference between the two works in respect to language is well exemplified in *Anlage*. Mark translates it *fundament*. Minot adopts it as an English word, regardless of its multifarious and incongruous senses, the confusion that attends its pronunciation and spelling, and the improbability of its acceptance by French embryologists. Neither seems to have thought of reverting to Aristotle, whose phrases, ἡ πρώτη ὕλη, ἡ πρώτη αἰτία, ἡ πρώτη οὐσία, τὸ πρῶτον, suggest the short word *proton*, already familiar in numerous compounds, and eligible for adoption into any modern language. Meantime, the refined, English-speaking student, who is confronted on the one hand with *Anlage*, *Vorderdarm*, and *Bauchstiel*, and on the other with *fundament*, *foregut*, and *belly-stalk*, is surely between the devil of outlandishness and the deep sea of vulgarity.

In both works the usefulness of the illustrations is materially impaired by abbreviation inconsistencies that might be amusing if they were less annoying. Dr. Minot prefers German terms; but his abbreviations are partly Latin and partly English; Dr. Mark prefers English terms, but his abbreviations are partly Latin and partly German. Furthermore, incredible as may appear such lack of consideration for learners upon the part of practical teachers, the arrangement of these abbreviations is not alphabetical; but this is a common manifestation of Teutonic indifference to the convenience of readers. Indexical defects are so common that the reviewer is in danger of becoming hardened to their seriousness. As stated in the author's preface to the third edition of Hertwig-Mark, two chapters were extended on account of recent important observations upon *Ascaris megalocéphala*; yet that worm is nowhere named in the index. Even *cord* is not entered, although it is the English for *chorda*, and is in perplexingly general use in combination with the adjectives *dorsal*, *spinal*, *spermatic*, *vocal*, *umbilical*, etc. Dr. Mark's own *heterolecithal* (p. 28) finds no place in the index, and *fundament* has only five entries in place of the scores to which it is entitled. Dr. Minot's index is more nearly complete, but it is not easy to account for the omission of common words like *mucosa*, *serosa*, *dura*, *pig*, and *myelon*, of *vermic* and *fat-islands*—this last his own creation—and of *Anlage*, the German favorite.



As is well stated by Dr. Mark:

"Two important objects to be accomplished in a text-book are (1) a clear and methodical exposition of the well-established facts of the science, and (2) such a presentation of unsettled questions as shall stimulate the reader to further inquiry and research."

The layman might imagine that these two volumes must exhaust the subject, for the present at least. But the need of further observation is indicated by Dr. Minot on pp. 36, 39, 60, 78, 107, 129, 162, etc., and in the following remark, which might well have found place in his preface:

"There are still many unsolved problems as to the development of man. It will be observed that not a single one of the ova hitherto noticed has been adequately investigated, and that no specimens have yet been studied at all showing the first appearance of the embryo, the origin of the amnion or of the allantois or of the yolk-sack, and finally that of all the earliest stages our knowledge is extremely imperfect. It is therefore much to be hoped that all who obtain available specimens will preserve them carefully and intrust them to a competent investigator."

This, in connection with our nearly complete ignorance of the embryology of apes and monkeys, renders it impossible at present to answer the question—as important to the zoologist as it is fascinating to the layman—How far does human development differ from that of animals? In neither of the works before us is this matter comprehensively discussed, but Dr. Minot incidentally makes the following statements:

"At sixty days the tail has disappeared as a free appendage" (p. 333). "After the fortieth day the form is distinctly human" (p. 391). "Nothing similar to the dorsal flexure of the human embryo [during the third week] has been observed in any other vertebrate, though it may occur in apes and monkeys" (p. 296). "The human ovum is remarkable [peculiar?] for the precocious development of the chorion . . . and for its early complete encapsulation" (p. 309). "The full-grown human ovum is distinguished among mammalian ova for the clear development and ready visibility of all its parts" (p. 55).

The logical, if provisional, inference from the foregoing is that between man and other animals there are at all periods differences real though often slight, and that the recognition and formulation of these distinctions will come in time with the application of improved methods to more adequate material. The need of more accurate embryological information among physicians is gruesomely exemplified in the publication in *Gaillard's Medical Journal* for March, 1893, of an article justifying the destruction of early embryos upon the ground that they are not yet different from animals; the editors repudiate the doctrine but not the misstatement of fact. In this connection it may be added that, if the suggestion recently made by a Cornell professor, that there be organized preparatory theological courses including scientific branches like palæontology and embryology, should be realized, works like those here noticed would perform an important service.

#### MRS. OLIPHANT'S VICTORIAN AGE.

*The Victorian Age of English Literature.* By Mrs. Oliphant. Tait, Sons & Co.

BOLINGBROKE somewhere tells of a "studious man" who was overheard in his oratory "entering into a detail with God," and who very particularly "acknowledged the Divine goodness in furnishing the world with makers of dictionaries." To-day this worthy student

would doubtless have included Mrs. Oliphant in his orisons and have given her the time of at least one bead for her sketch of Victorian literature. The book is precisely what it pretends to be, an exceptionally good Baedeker to the last fifty years of English literature. That even Baedeker now and then nods is incontestable; and so does Mrs. Oliphant. But in the main she guides the traveller faithfully and accurately, and puts him duly on the watch for the most famous sights of the route. As for anything more than this, the author or authors are careful to disclaim any purpose of attempting it. In her earlier work on English literature Mrs. Oliphant made a point of avowing her belief that all men of genius are Melchisedecs, without intellectual or spiritual fathers or mothers, that all explanations of literature are "mere feigning" and all theorizing "mere folly." The same view of literature underlies these new volumes; they are full of sneers at "the fashionable and feeble creed of heredity" and at "automatic development," and make a more or less plausible and continuous plea for "the curious accidentalness of all human work." In short, the old creed still finds favor with Mrs. Oliphant, that the history of the world would have been totally different if Cleopatra's nose had been a hair's breadth longer. Why should we quarrel with this creed when it leads to so entertaining a series of sketches as Mrs. Oliphant has given us?

What we are bound to quarrel with, however, is inaccuracy or incompleteness. Of actual inaccuracies we have no very damaging collection to offer; but we have noted a few points that ought to be rectified in later editions. For some of these errors the American reprint may be responsible, and for others, Mrs. Oliphant's collaborator, F. R. Oliphant, B.A.; but for brevity's sake we must lay on Mrs. Oliphant the burden of them all. On p. 43 we are told that Sydney Smith edited the first numbers of the *Edinburgh Review*; in point of fact, he edited but a single number, the very first. On p. 44, Peter Plymley's Letters are said to have been "published about 1806"; to be exact, the first five letters were published in the autumn of 1807 and the second five during the first weeks of 1808. On p. 48 the date of the foundation of the *Quarterly Review* is apparently given as 1808; the first number of the *Review* was in reality dated February, 1809. On p. 73 the *Westminster Review* is said to have arisen out of the camp of the *Edinburgh* in 1823; doubtless the arrangements for the new *Review* were made in 1823, but the first number is dated January, 1824. On p. 298 the publication of 'Pendennis' is described as having taken place by means of monthly numbers in 1850; in point of fact, 'Pendennis' began to appear in November, 1848. On p. 117 the Weissnichtwo of 'Sartor Resartus' is transformed into 'Wessnichtwo.' On p. 163 John Wilson Croker is called Crocker, and on p. 259 the friend and biographer of Dickens is mentioned as John Foster. We see no sound reason for preferring, as Mrs. Oliphant always prefers, 'Idyls of the King' to *Idylls*, the form invariably found in authorized editions of Tennyson; the poet's own choice in such a matter should, it seems to us, be decisive. On p. 441 there occurs a palpable misquotation, "Great wits to madness nearly are allied"; the line as Dryden wrote it is much more forcible.

Such errors as these are easy enough to deal with; but when we turn to omissions or disproportions, the questions that spring up are much thornier and harder to handle. Take, for ex-

ample, the criticisms of the poems of Matthew Arnold and of Clough: surely many readers will question the wisdom of giving one out of five pages on Arnold to querulous complaints of his diffuseness, and will also feel like protesting at the contemptuous tone in which both Arnold's and Clough's portrayal of spiritual unrest is mentioned. "Doubt" is for Mrs. Oliphant "an unkindly and unmusical spirit, which has been converted into a patron saint or demon by the fashion of the time." To dispose in this off-hand and unsympathetic manner of the work of the two great post-Romanticists is to miss the whole significance of the transition from the Romantic mood to the mood of the present day. In the mazes of these general discussions, however, we do not propose to lose ourselves; nor do we care to criticise Mrs. Oliphant's estimates of the various authors she deals with. We prefer to note certain omissions which even from her own point of view must certainly be regarded as detracting from the completeness of her narrative.

In the rather grudging notice of Leigh Hunt no credit is given him for his attack on the heroic couplet. In his famous preface to the 'Story of Rimini,' Hunt pleaded for variety of pause and the avoidance of too much stress on the rhyme, for the use of dissyllabic rhymes, and for the division of the couplet. His preface and his poetry alike had an important influence on both Shelley and Keats, and hence on the whole subsequent development of English versification. In her notice of a poet of a very different stamp, C. S. Calverley, Mrs. Oliphant fails to record the fact that the poet's name was originally Blayds. This omission is specially unfortunate, inasmuch as several of the best epigrams that are associated with Calverley's Oxford days depend for their point on a play on the poet's name, e. g., "The dons would like their blades to cut, But cannot find a handle."

In her treatment of Dante Gabriel Rossetti, Mrs. Oliphant has perhaps been as tolerant as a critic of her temperament could be expected to be; but it is strange that she should refuse to credit the story that Rossetti's poems in manuscript were with his consent rescued from the coffin of his wife, where they had been buried at the time of her death. Perhaps this is a case of "the doubt courteous"; at any rate there can be no question as to the truth of the story.

In her notice of Mr. Dobson, Mrs. Oliphant speaks of his slight 'Life of Steele' as "a standard authority on a much disputed subject"; but nowhere does she mention Mr. Aitken's two-volume 'Life of Steele,' which quite out-classes Mr. Dobson's work in scholarship and in breadth of treatment. On page 183, Harriet Martineau receives due credit for her 'History of the Peace'; but the fact should certainly be noted that all of the first book save one chapter was the work of the well-known publisher, Charles Knight. Another curious omission occurs in the discussion of Charles Kingsley: no word do we hear of Kingsley's famous onslaught on Father Newman, which led in 1864 to the publication of Newman's 'Apologia.' In her treatment of living authors Mrs. Oliphant seems usually fair and discreet; but she should at least mention Mr. Walter Pater.

As we look back over the whole of Mrs. Oliphant's book, the passages that remain most pleasantly in the memory are those on Carlyle, on Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,' and on Browning. The plea for Carlyle is almost passionate in its fervor and intensity of conviction. Mrs. Oliphant enters with unerringly sympathetic

insight into the curiously complex relations between Carlyle and his wife; she appreciates perfectly the basis of genuine and unflinching affection on which from first to last these relations depended; and her thorough familiarity with the curious intricacies of Scotch character, its distrust of "exhibitions of feeling," its painful constraint and its constitutional hypocrisies in matters of emotion, enables her to reconcile the apparent contradictions between the words and the hearts of the Carlyles. She speaks from a personal knowledge of both Mr. and Mrs. Carlyle; and her testimony, together with the recent book of another personal friend of Carlyle's, Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, ought to do much to correct the disastrously false impressions that Mr. Froude's ill-judged work has stamped on the mind of the public.

Almost as interesting as these pages on Carlyle are the passages on Tennyson and Browning; and in a different way the discussion of George Eliot is thoroughly good reading. The chapters on periodicals and newspapers have naturally no special charm of style; but they are full of interesting facts, many of which could hardly be found elsewhere, not even in the special works of Mr. Fox Bourne and Mr. James Grant. These chapters, and indeed the whole book, will be full of matter for laborious Anglomaniacs who aspire to rival the English themselves in knowledge of English affairs.

*Wanderings by Southern Waters: Eastern Aquitaine.* By Edward Harrison Baker. London: R. Bentley & Son; New York: D. Appleton & Co.

THIS book, though the author does not give a single hint to that effect, is a continuation of his 'Wanderings in France,' and a very abrupt continuation at that, for it begins without a word of introduction or connection of any sort. It also ends in the same fashion, as if, imbued with advanced realistic notions, Mr. Baker desired to give us a "tranche de voyages," just as some of the realists insist on serving up a "tranche de la vie." The volume has the appearance of an instalment of a much larger work, cut out bodily and clapped between a pair of cloth covers, with a title-page by way of concession to popular prejudice. There is no index, though one is needed, nor table of contents. A sketch map, including the departments of Dordogne, Lot, Tarn, and Aveyron, through which the reader willingly accompanies Mr. Baker, would certainly have added greatly to the value of the work and the enjoyment of the reader; it may possibly come with the tail-end volume—for surely there must be one on the stocks.

The author is a thorough Englishman; he loves to tramp through an unfrequented and interesting country. It is particularly attractive to him, this Eastern Aquitaine, because it is full of memories of his countrymen, who, in the olden days when kings of England were likewise kings of France, conquered, held, and then lost the land. So he gives us plenty of history in easy, gossiping fashion, making more intelligible, by his graphic description of the wild, stern scenery, the struggles between Frenchman and Englishman at one time, between Huguenot and Catholic at another. Archaeologist and botanist, artist and geologist, an observer of men as of things, adventurous like all his race, largely free from insular prejudice, and broad and kindly in his judgments, it is little wonder that the reader becomes attached to him and feels a sense of per-

sonal injury when Mr. Baker unexpectedly writes down "The End" on page 403.

The country he takes us over is one worthy to be visited even at the cost of poor meals, much garlic, more fleas, endless suspicion, burning winds, and soaking rains. Sun-parched plateaus, on which, nevertheless, strange flowers bloom; deep ravines down whose sombre depths rush torrents; cliffs to which cling quaint old townlets and villages; profound, sombre pools inspiring superstitious fears; rivers suddenly uprising from rocky ground or vanishing mysteriously within caverns; districts cracked and split by subterranean fires, the pale flames of which play here and there on the surface; ruined castles, hoary abbeys, splendid churches—these are some of the things Mr. Baker has seen and which he shows the reader. Only on the outskirts of the great district he has crossed and recrossed is the tourist race known; if the ground be not virgin ground, it is at least unfamiliar, and many a traveller, seeking fresh fields, will surely feel tempted to tread in the Englishman's footsteps and explore in his turn Roc-Amadour, Ambialet, Montpellier-le-Vieux, Figeac, and Cahors.

But it is evident, from the author's experiences, that he who would traverse the *causses* and visit the wild cañons and *gouffres* of Aquitaine, who would mingle with the old Gallic race which has preserved its distinctive traits, must be prepared to rough it. The people, once their easily roused suspicions allayed, are kindly enough, but they find it necessary to shout always at the top of their voices, and their breath is redolent of garlic as their cookery is of fat bacon. By way of compensation Mr. Baker found usually a bottle of good wine wherever he put up, spite of the ravages of the phylloxera. "Papers" are indispensable, and are frequently called for by the authorities—for there are authorities everywhere, even in remote districts where French is as little understood as English in some parts of Cape Breton.

Mr. Baker's style is pleasant enough; he relates well because he is generally simple and direct in his account. At times, however, he is somewhat heavy, dropping into downright "fine writing" in which there is more rhetorical effect than true beauty; at others, having turns of expression quaintly enough suggestive of phrases dear to our ancestors, such as: "Now, the sun, whose ardor was already melting into the tenderness of evening." A very readable book he has made, however, and on a very interesting country.

*The Story of a Cavalry Regiment: The Career of the Fourth Iowa Veteran Volunteers, from Kansas to Georgia, 1861-1865.* By Wm. Forse Scott, late Adjutant. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xxiv, 602.

It is often objected to regimental histories that they take too narrow a view of the campaigns included in the story. Mr. Scott has shown that this need not be so, and that such a history may keep its distinctive character, with the personal and local incidents which delight the members of the regiment, without sacrificing a broad and appreciative estimate of the larger events in which they had a part.

The Fourth Iowa Cavalry was organized in the autumn of 1861, and served with credit through the whole of the civil war. It took part in the campaigns of Missouri and Arkansas of 1862, and in the Vicksburg campaign of 1863, including Sherman's march upon Jackson, Miss. It was again with

Sherman in his expedition to Meridian in February, 1864. It formed part of the unfortunate campaign against Gen. Forrest conducted by Gen. Sturgis. It went back to the west side of the Mississippi and served under Pleasanton in the fall of 1864 against Sterling Price. It returned to Tennessee and was incorporated with Wilson's Cavalry Corps, and, as part of Upton's division, won much glory in the great cavalry campaign against Selma, Ala., Columbus and Macon, Ga., in the spring of 1865. Its service was of the most continuous and active kind, and its story well illustrates the two periods of cavalry experience—the awkward and discouraging beginnings, and the assured and brilliant career after the officers and men have become educated to their work and the incompetent material has been sifted out. It shows why the organization of a great cavalry force from raw material was so slow and so costly a process. It explains why enlisting in the mounted service was so tempting to the new recruit and so apt to be disappointing for a year or more. It lets us see, also, why experienced military men opposed the attempt to organize suddenly a large and wholly new cavalry corps.

Mr. Scott has spoken his mind frankly in regard to the officers under whose command the regiment came from time to time; and while his criticisms are sometimes severe, they are based on convincing facts, so that his blame and his praise may be accepted as the sober and final judgment of men who, in great perils, earned the right to speak. He has put aside temporary prejudice, and has given us a work at once entertaining and solidly instructive.

*The Unmarried Woman.* By Eliza Chester. [The Portia Series.] Dodd, Mead & Co.

IN strict logic there is no limit to the power to frame classes, so long as the ingenious mind can discover a difference to found a distinction upon. This must be the principle that has guided the author of 'The Unmarried Woman' in joining together in classification, by the bond of a single common attribute—one of proverbially uncertain duration at that—individuals otherwise as heterogeneous as the inequalities of the human lot can make them. As might have been foretold, the result of such a *tour de force* is not brilliantly successful. The pages turn out on perusal to oscillate between studies of types and eminently sympathetic, though ineffectual, suggestions for the improvement of the unmarried woman's condition. They strengthen, on the whole, one's belief in the maxim of utilitarian political economy, which teaches that even average individuals are likely to understand their own interests better than any one else can, and should be trusted to look after them accordingly. Interference, in some form or other, has hitherto been the fruitful source of most of the unmarried woman's woes. Henceforward, with college doors and professional and business careers opening freely before her, she may be left to spend her life with what thrift she chooses—certainly a better fate than to have it spent by the unthrif of others.

Among the suggestions, however, there is one of such excellence that it is worth while to quote it verbatim:

"I can think of many women scattered about in thoughtful families, who do their work simply and thoroughly, whose neatness is true refinement, who are honorable and modest, and who have many quiet pleasures. These women do not seem restless nor [sic] unhappy, and they add in an unobtrusive way to the happiness of other people."

Here is a way pointed out for women who



are ambitious, as well as self-supporting, to perform a truly patriotic service. They can disprove the fatal error of the shop and factory girl that domestic service is dishonorable; they can help to take homes out of the irresponsible and incompetent hands they are now perforce in; and they can do much towards removing the universal reproach we suffer of being a nation without a decent domestic organization.

As for the studies of types, they are numerous and indefinite, and not unentertaining. The chapter on Coöperation is the one we should single out as of most freshness and value. It is worth elaborating, and presenting where it will be seen to better advantage than in a volume that inevitably suggests a prearranged number of pages, to be filled out at all hazards. According to such a scheme, there seems no reason why "Widows," "Heiresses," or even "The Only Daughter" should not soon figure throughout an equal number of paragraphs and chapters.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Don. *An Agnostic's View of the Resurrection.* Truth Seeker Co. 75 cents.  
Annual Cyclopædia for 1892. Appletons.  
Barrett, Frank. *Kitty's Father.* Tait, Sons & Co. 50 cents.

## JOHN PAGET.

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56 West 25th St., New York.

Bell, W. S. *A Handbook of Free Thought.* Truth Seeker Co. \$1.  
Bengough, M. A. *In a Promised Land.* Harpers. 50 cents.  
Blakie, Rev. W. G. *The Book of Joshua.* [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. \$1.50.  
Bonney, Prof. T. G. *The Year Book of Science, 1893.* Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.75.  
Bourdillon, F. W. *Sursum Corda.* London: T. Fisher Unwin.  
Boyesen, H. H. *Social Strugglers.* Scribners. \$1.25.  
Brinton, D. G. *The Pursuit of Happiness: A Book of Studies and Strivings.* Philadelphia: David McKay. \$1.  
Brown, P. H. *Scotland before 1700, from Contemporary Documents.* Edinburgh: David Douglas.  
Burnham, Mrs. Clara L. *Dr. Latimer: A Story of Chesapeake Bay.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.  
Buswell, H. F. *Law of Personal Injuries.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$5.50.  
Campbell, Sir George. *Memoirs of My Indian Career.* 2 vols. Macmillan. \$8.  
Cook, J. W., and Crosey, Miss N. *An Advanced Arithmetic.* Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.  
Cook, J. W., and Crosey, Miss N. *Elementary Arithmetic.* Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.  
Crothers, T. D. *The Disease of Inebriety.* E. B. Treat. \$2.75.  
Davies, T. A. *A Biblical Discovery.* G. W. Dillingham. \$1.  
Dean, Mrs. Andrew. *Isaac Eller's Money.* London: T. Fisher Unwin.  
Droysen, Prof. J. G. *Outline of the Principles of History.* Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.10.  
Duff, Sir M. E. G. *Ernest Renan.* Macmillan. \$1.75.  
Dumas, A. *Memoirs of a Physician.* M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.  
Eliwanger, H. B. *The Rose.* Revised ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.25.  
Fuller, Anna. *A Literary Courtship.* Putnam. \$1.  
Fullerton, W. M. *Patriotism and Science: Some Studies in Historic Psychology.* Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.  
Gassiot, H. *Stories from Waverley for Children.* Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.  
Hopkin, Emily H. *From Out of the Past: The Story of a Meeting in Touraine.* Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.  
Horton, Rev. R. F. *Verbum Dei: Yale Lectures on Preaching, 1893.* Macmillan. \$1.50.

Laurie, Prof. S. S. *John Amos Comenius: His Life and Educational Works.* Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. \$1.  
Lott, Pierre. *Jean Berny, Sailor.* Cassell. \$1.  
Lott, Pierre. *Matelot.* Paris: Alphonse Lemerre; New York: Brentanos. Also, Ambard & Meyer.  
Lyon, W. S. *Erckmann Chatrian's Histoire d'un Paysan.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.  
Mackellar, Thomas. *Hymns and Metrical Psalms.* Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.  
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